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ABSTRACT

Articles by student affairs officers of The University of North Carolina focus on the theme of improving the quality of life for students during their time on campus. Programs, research, and thought being carried forward by student affairs professionals in North Carolina are noted. The 17 papers are as follows: (1) "A University System Response to AIDS: Development of Community Policy and Educational Programs" (William A. Bryan and Richard H. Robinson, Jr.); (2) "Campus Substance Abuse Program Model: The Appalachian Student Assistance Program" (Jon A. Hagaeseth and Rick L. Geis); (3) "Assessing Needs of Sexual Assault Victims on a University Campus" (Diane B. Byington and Karen W. Keeter); (4) "College Admissions and Handicapped Students" (Arlene C. Stewart); (5) "International Awareness and Interests of Students at Three Different Institutions of The University of North Carolina" (Neal Cheek, and others); (6) "Wellness: A Student Affairs Mandate for Action" (David McIntire and Susan Stamper); (7) "SITting on Stress: A Retention Emphasis through Study Skills" (Mary D. Deck and A. Michael Dougherty); (8) "A Focus on Wellness: LivWELL at UNCW" (Deborah H. Haywood and P. Graham Hatcher); (9) "A Proposal for Enhancing Student Development through a Human Development Laboratory" (Karen S. Buchanan and Roland L. Buchanan); (10) "The Evolution and Impact of Living-Learning Programs at The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill" (L. D. Newman, and others); (11) "A Profile of College Student Leaders Relating Personality Types, Learning Styles, and Leadership Approaches" (Marcia Lou Petty); (12) "A Framework for Student Leadership Development Programs" (Bruce Harshbarger); (13) "Selection and Training of Peer Educators for Substance Abuse Education and Prevention" (Linda Shaddix and Sheryl Scott); (14) "Establishment of Computerized Data Base Management Systems for Disciplinary Records" (James M. Lancaster); (15) "University and State Department Alliance: Building a Bridge for Student Services" (John J. Schmidt and George A. Antonelli); (16) "Beyond Policy: Ethical Considerations in Student Development" (Bonita Jacobs); and (17) "Outcomes Assessment for Student Affairs" (Diane L. Cooper and Barbara A. Mann). (SM)

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STUDENT SERVICES

Responding to Issues and Challenges

The Fifth Compendium of Papers by Student Services Officers of The University of North Carolina

June 1988

The University of North Carolina General Administration

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STUDENT SERVICES

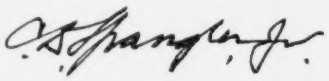
Responding to Issues and Challenges

The Fifth Compendium of Papers by Student Services Officers of The University of North Carolina

June 1988
The University of North Carolina General Administration

Preface

The fifth compendium of articles by student affairs officers of The University of North Carolina presents the theme of responding to issues and challenges. This volume highlights programs, research, and thought being carried forward by student affairs professionals in North Carolina. The papers in this compendium continue to demonstrate the professionalism, enthusiasm, and knowledge with which the officers perform their duties. I congratulate and thank all who participated in the development of this publication and trust that it will be informative to readers.



C. D. Spangler, Jr.
President
The University of North Carolina

Chapel Hill
June 1988

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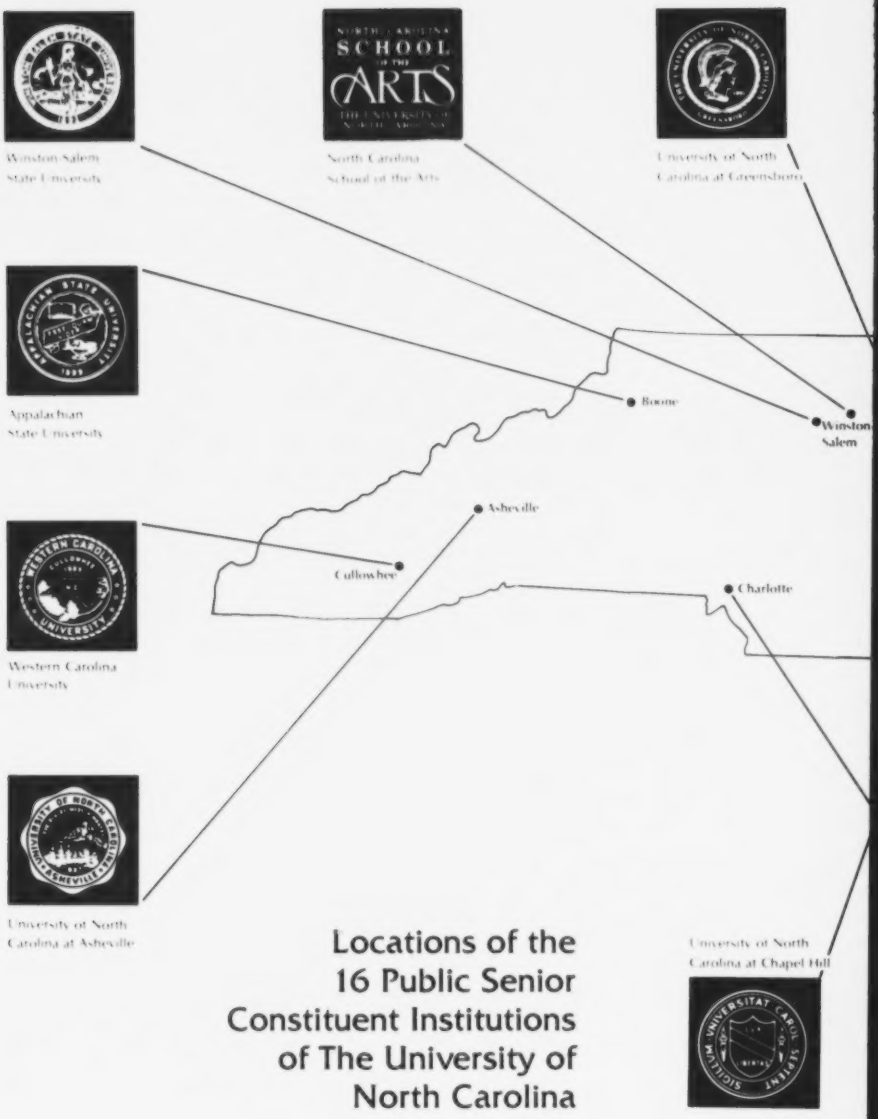
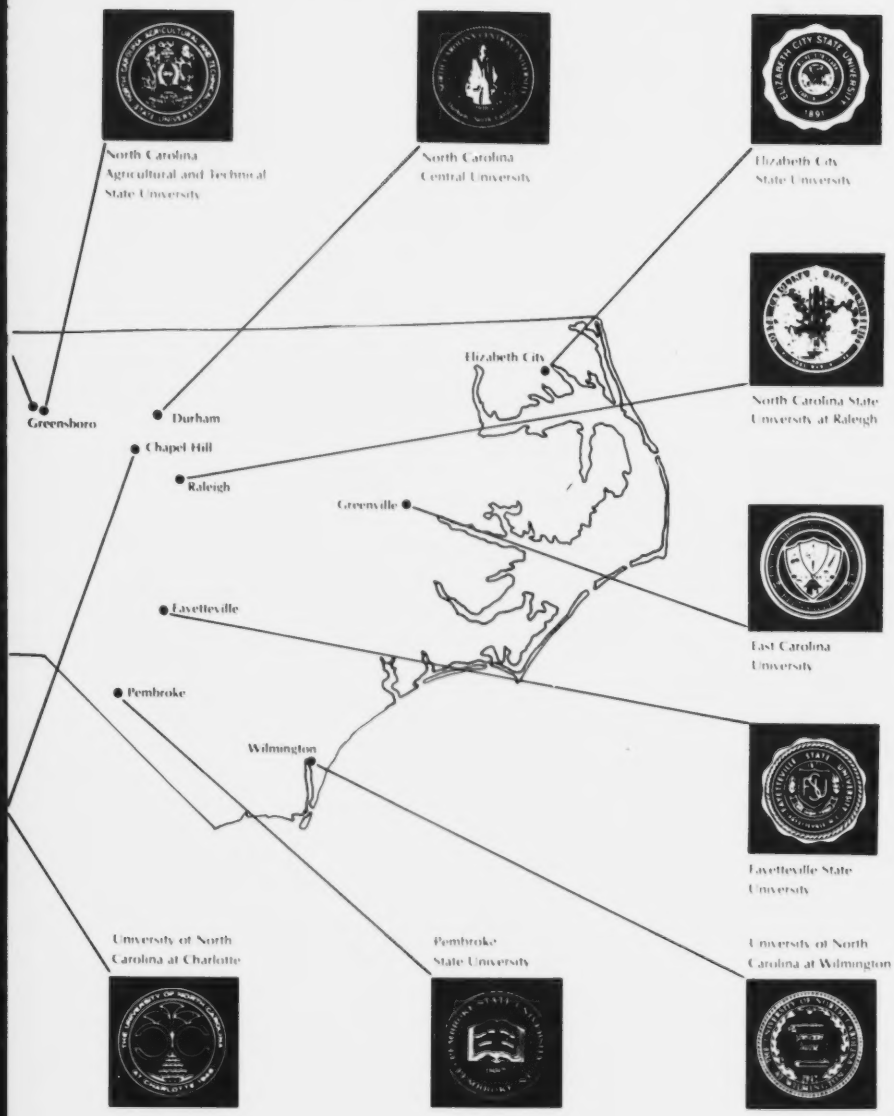


Locations of the 16 Public Senior Constituent Institutions of The University of North Carolina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State University
North Carolina
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Greensboro
Durham
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East Carolina
University
Fayetteville
Pembroke
Wilmington
Fayetteville State
University
University of North
Carolina at Charlotte
Pembroke
State University
University of North
Carolina at Wilmington

Nathan Simms, Jr.

Introduction

Higher education institutions have always been viable places to discuss and to share ideas, issues, and challenges that may bring benefits to mankind. The University of North Carolina has sixteen institutions that are keenly aware of their obligations to serve as forums for investigations of such ideas, issues, and challenges. An important group of educators in the University who each year enthusiastically participate in endeavors of responding to relevant issues is the student services officers. This compendium of papers represents their contributions to the enlargement of the body of knowledge.

This fifth compendium, entitled *Responding to Issues and Challenges*, contains a variety of papers that present critical topics that are constantly on the agendas of conferences of student service officers throughout the nation. These papers have, as a central theme, the improvement of the quality of life for students as they spend this brief period of their lives on the campuses. Prominent are articles on drug abuse, wellness and fitness, AIDS, and student leadership and development. A more recent topic making headlines is outcomes assessment; it too is covered by one of the papers.

As one views the table of contents, it is apparent that student services officers of the University of North Carolina have strong professional interests in many areas related to student life. Their studies and research have in past years allowed the University to produce a series of compendiums that clearly indicated the diversity of interest and scholarship. The 1988 compendium is no different and is now given as a report on the findings and results of research done by persons in the student services area during the past two years.

Dr. Simms is Vice President for Student Services and Special Programs, the University of North Carolina General Administration.

1

William A. Bryan
Richard H. Robinson, Jr.

A University System Response to AIDS: Development of Community Policy and Educational Programs

In the fall of 1985, under the leadership of former President William Friday, the sixteen-campus University of North Carolina system (UNC) began to develop its response to the growing national concern about Acquired Immuno-Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS). With the assistance of a representative task force composed of infirmary physicians, health educators, student affairs administrators, and attorneys, drawn from the staffs of the constituent institutions, the President established basic policies to be followed by UNC in addressing the AIDS epidemic and outlined the general content of educational programs on that subject to be implemented at each campus. During the spring of 1986, the presidential task force arranged for teams of specialists to visit each constituent institution and assist campus officials in implementing the President's instructions. By the fall of 1986, each institution had initiated a comprehensive, on-going educational program on AIDS, which was designed to address the needs of the entire academic community.

During the initial year-long planning effort, attention was focused both on the substance of frequently difficult AIDS policy choices and on the appropriate division of responsibility between central administration and local campus administration within a centralized multi-campus system of higher education. This report seeks to chronicle both aspects of the effort by UNC to provide its constituencies with appropriate services responsive to their concerns about AIDS.

Dr. Bryan is Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs, the University of North Carolina at Wilmington, and served as a member of the UNC AIDS Task Force. Mr. Robinson is Assistant to the President for Legal Affairs, The University of North Carolina General Administration, and served as Co-Chairman of the UNC AIDS Task Force.

1985 Task Force

The UNC system task force, organized by President Friday and co-chaired by two senior members of his staff, held three lengthy meetings during the fall of 1985 to explore basic concerns and to formulate a recommended UNC system response to the AIDS epidemic. The basic conclusion reached by the task force, predictably, was consistent with the recommendations of various national organizations, such as the United States Public Health Service, the American Council on Education, and the American College Health Association: all urged that vigorous efforts be made immediately to better educate people about the disease. The findings of the task force provided an essential foundation for developing UNC Policies regarding AIDS in the campus community. The essence of the UNC approach was articulated by President Friday (personal communication, November 20, 1985) in letters addressed to each of the Chancellors of the sixteen constituent institutions. He stated:

> Our first priority is to provide useful information on this subject to all members of our campus communities and thereby equip ourselves to address responsibly any AIDS-related issues which may arise. Successful accomplishment of this task not only will assist in preventing the spread of this disease but also will dispel ignorance and misinformation that otherwise could lead to unjustified anxiety about and inappropriate responses to this dangerous disease. There is sound basis for believing that, within our university communities, rationality and objectivity can prevail, once widespread educational efforts have had their intended effects.

The task force also established the basic pattern of shared responsibility in addressing AIDS concerns. It recommended that, after fulfilling the task of alerting all campuses to the need for action, the Office of the President should provide general policy guidelines which would then be adapted by the respective campuses to the perceived needs of the various local environments. The UNC system effort thereby would be designed to complement individual campus efforts, rather than supplant or curtail them.

UNC System Policies

On January 17, 1986, President Friday (personal communication) directed a letter to each Chancellor in the UNC System outlining policies and educational programs concerning AIDS. He asked each Chancellor to

ensure that the following basic policies were adopted, publicized, and implemented at each campus:

(1) *The campus will assume responsibility for conducting an ongoing educational campaign designed to reach all campus constituencies (students and employees) to provide basic information about AIDS.* The expectation was that campuses would convey to all members of the university community essential basic information that might be imparted through printed materials, posters, meetings and seminars regarding AIDS. Such information was to be made available on an annual basis because of the turnover of students and employees.

(2) *Persons infected with the AIDS virus (whether active AIDS, AIDS-Related Complex, or sero-positive to virus) will not be excluded from enrollment or employment or restricted in their access to university services or facilities, unless medically-based judgments in individual cases establish that exclusion or restriction is necessary to the welfare of the individual or to the welfare of other members of the University community.*

(3) *Persons who know that they are infected by the AIDS virus should be urged to share this information, on a confidential basis, with the Director of the Student Health Service, so that the University can respond appropriately to their health and educational needs.* This policy was designed to ensure that those infected could be fully informed about their condition for the protection of themselves and other members of the university community.

(4) *Persons who know, or have reasonable basis for believing that they are infected are expected to seek expert advice about their health circumstances and are obligated, ethically and legally, to conduct themselves responsibly in accordance with such knowledge, for the protection of other members of the community.*

(5) *The University will widely publicize and carefully observe the safety guidelines established by the U. S. Public Health Service for the handling of blood and other body fluids and secretions, both in all health-care facilities maintained on the campus and in other institutional contexts in which such fluids or secretions may be encountered (e.g., teaching and experimental laboratories).*

Campus Educational Campaigns

During the spring of 1986, an AIDS information team, including an infirmary physician, a chief student affairs officer, an attorney and a health

educator, visited each campus in the UNC system. The objective of these visits was to impart information to campus administrators about the elements of an effective response to the AIDS crisis. The teams met with Chancellors, Vice Chancellors, student health, legal, public relations, faculty, and student government officers, and other persons the Chancellor of an individual campus wished to include. Presentations focused on: (1) medical facts about the disease, its causes, nature, communicability, prevention, and current and projected epidemiologic picture; (2) effective techniques for disseminating information to university constituencies; (3) legal constraints which should be considered in determining what policies and practices may be implemented; (4) the formation of a Chancellor's advisory committee that would be responsible for coordinating campus responses to this problem; (5) medical and legal expertise that would be made available to campuses as they addressed issues and problems; and (6) particular issues and problems that might be anticipated.

The projected campus educational campaign was to be the centerpiece of the program prescribed by President Friday's January 17 memorandum. During each campus visit, there was discussion regarding precautions, means of dispelling fear, and methods of publicizing basic policies on the campus. There was discussion of the best approach to presenting information to different groups and the special challenges posed by particular constituencies, such as commuting students, non-traditional students, employees and other separately identifiable groups on campus. It was clear that constituencies such as parents, politicians, and media representatives might require special attention. Beyond the printed material, most campuses struggled to identify what types of contacts would provide true understanding of this complex subject.

A particular challenge was to properly inform members of high risk groups and encourage them to seek medical assistance, information, and counseling. The identification of assistance beyond the campus was thought to be a key to gaining credibility among members of such high risk groups.

As campuses sought an approach to provide the best information available, a need for an information team that could respond immediately to crisis situations on each campus was identified. This information team could seek to allay concerns, for example, of residence hall students who might fear that a person with AIDS was living among them, or of students eating in the cafeteria who were concerned about a member of the food service staff having AIDS.

Most of all, intercampus sharing of information, of experiences regarding medical resources, legal resources and community resources, and general

campus experience in conducting effective programs was seen as being extremely helpful to all campuses.

Using these campus meetings as a starting point, and with additional guidance from the President's office about available resources and sources of expert medical and legal advice, each campus developed its own educational program, to be fully implemented for the first time in the fall of 1986.

Responding to Crises and Controversies

In the relatively brief time since AIDS was identified as a newly presenting infectious disease, there have been numerous examples nationwide of the highly emotional reactions this public health crisis can engender. Because the full-blown disease appears invariably to be fatal, because it most often is transmitted through sexual activity or intravenous drug use, and because it has affected disproportionately the male homosexual segment of our population, controversy frequently does attend any discussion of the disease. Thus, there are important and difficult policy questions to be confronted in the university, which is responsible for many aspects of the welfare of a special population of young people.

Because of their breadth and generality, the presidential policy guidelines recounted previously must be interpreted at the campus level to give them practical contextual meaning in response to specific problem situations. In anticipation of that need, the presidential task force recommended, and the President endorsed the suggestion, that each constituent campus establish a Chancellor's Advisory Committee on AIDS. Composed of relevant senior staff members, the committee is responsible for helping a Chancellor decide how to respond to particular crises or controversies. Typically, such committees include a senior official from the office of student affairs, from the office of academic affairs, from student health services, from the personnel office, and from the legal staff (at those campuses that include lawyers on the Chancellor's staff). Either the Chancellor or the chairman of the advisory committee typically has been designated as the official spokesperson for the campus in matters relating to AIDS.

In practice, these advisory committees have played a large role at each of the sixteen campuses. Virtually all committees have had to deal with numerous variations on a basic theme of concern about the possible presence of persons with AIDS (PWAs) within the campus community. One recurring example concerns their handling of AIDS issues in the residence hall context. The familiar dichotomy, involving on one hand concern for the interests of those who are ill with the disease or infected with the causative virus and

on the other hand concern for the interests of those who are in contact with and fear contagion from such PWAs, must be confronted. Two markedly different models have emerged for dealing with the problem at the constituent UNC campuses. At some locations, the better approach is believed to be one of relying on medical assurances that because of minimal possibilities of transmission in the rooming context, absent sexual activity, there is no compelling basis for requiring that a PWA's health status be disclosed either to a roommate or to other occupants of the residence hall. By contrast, other campuses have concluded that disclosures should be required, or, absent permission from the PWA to disclose, that the PWA should be assisted by the institution in relocating to a different residential location entailing no contact with a university roommate. The decentralized responsibility for interpreting and applying the general presidential guidelines accounts for such differences in approach from one campus to another.

Summary

The principles underlying the UNC program were reaffirmed by C. D. Spangler, Jr., when he succeeded William Friday as President in the Spring of 1986. The UNC system has sought to insure appropriate consistency in basic AIDS policies followed by the sixteen constituent institutions, while encouraging flexibility in detailed implementation at the campus level. The primary emphasis is on insuring that the members of all groups comprising the campus community have ready access to reliable information about AIDS, ranging from basic understandings to specific counseling referrals for persons who feel a special need to explore the topic in greater detail. The success of all such efforts is being enhanced by the opportunity, within a multi-campus context, for constituent institutions to share information and experiences derived from their separate activities.

2

Jon A. Hageseth
Rick L. Geis

Campus Substance Abuse Program Model: The Appalachian Student Assistance Program

The purpose of this article is to describe a proposed drug and alcohol program for students at Appalachian State University. Although the scope of this proposal is comprehensive treatment, the primary emphasis is on prevention. The conceptualization of the program grew out of a University sponsored task force charged with planning a campus strategy for addressing the substance abuse problem. Even though each institution must create a uniquely tailored response (Hetherington and Keene, 1985), it is hoped that this outline will provide a theoretical and organizational framework for other colleges and universities that plan to implement a campus drug and alcohol program.

The social and political concern generated by the widespread substance abuse problem in this country emerges as a conversation topic that ranks alongside other national issues like AIDS, the prospect of nuclear war, and the Iran Affair (Rouner, 1986). Hardly a day seems to pass without another statistic quoted or one more human tragedy reported by the media. The issue of drug and alcohol abuse is so serious that the President and the First Lady speak about the war on drugs at every opportunity. Perhaps the statement "We're a nation of addicts" that appears on the front cover of a recent issue of *New Age* magazine is more accurate than we care to admit (Schaef, 1987).

Dr. Hageseth is Associate Director of Counseling and Psychological Services and Mr. Geis is Associate Director of Residence Life at Appalachian State University.

In today's college environment students are using and abusing a variety of substances. College students have long used alcohol and since the 1960's have incorporated other substances such as depressants, deliriants, stimulants, cannabis, hallucinogens and/or narcotics into the college scene. However, it is not entirely fair to indict the college population as the primary offenders in this alarming aspect of American life. The facts are that:

—Drug use is widespread among school children in the high schools and even the elementary schools.

—Drug use is not confined to the poor, minorities, or the disadvantaged. Drugs are a serious problem for all groups, for the entire nation.

—Initial use of alcohol occurs at an early age and the problem is ten times greater than most parents suspect (*Schools Without Drugs*, 1986).

While it is not acceptable for colleges and universities to conduct education as usual and disavow any social responsibility, it is important that institutions of higher education react to this national emergency in a thoughtful and concrete manner. If, however, social obligation is insufficient motivation, the government's recent decision to make the availability of federal financial aid money contingent on a campus drug-abuse prevention program should provide a strong incentive for action by university officials (Wilson, 1987).

Colleges and universities across the country can play a very significant role in combating substance abuse provided that administrators and faculty honestly identify the campus factors that both promote and prevent substance abuse. The mission of higher education includes teaching intellectual skills, preparing students for jobs after graduation, encouraging critical thinking, promoting responsible behavior, and helping students obtain the emotional maturity to become well-rounded adults and contributing members of this society. It can be assumed that accomplishing these educational objectives will enable students to make responsible choices about alcohol and drug use. Indeed the literature indicates that promoting self-awareness and developing communication and problem solving skills may have real deterrent effects on substance abuse (Sehwan, 1980; Triplett, 1987).

Unfortunately, some aspects of the college experience may not discourage, but even promote substance abuse (Deakin and Cohen, 1986). The social and academic environment, with the emphasis on "studying hard and partying hard," creates an atmosphere in which alcohol and drug use becomes an essential part of college life (Wechsler and Rohman, 1981). From a developmental perspective, college students struggling with the

transition to adulthood may satisfy their curiosity needs by experimenting with alcohol and drugs. Integral with this "rite of passage" we call "going off to college" is the natural tendency for students to learn about their own limits by testing and breaking the limits of various authorities. The more colleges and universities prohibit the use of alcohol and enforce the laws pertaining to illegal drugs, the more the young adult may be invited to act out and sample the "forbidden fruit." Finally, the economic factors, particularly the profits awaiting the beer companies, play an important role. For example, the following quote in *The Booze Merchants* by a marketing executive illustrates this problem.

> "Let's not forget that getting a freshman (17 or 18 years old) to choose a certain brand of beer may mean that he will maintain his brand loyalty for the next 20 to 35 years. If he turns out to be a big drinker, the beer company has bought itself an annuity" (Leiber, 1986-87).

Clearly, the problem facing University officials is complex. Colleges and universities are confronted with the paradox of being both a force for prevention and deterrence as well as an agent for encouragement and continuance. Prevention efforts such as the planned Appalachian Student Assistance Program (ASAP) and the existing Employee Assistance Program are very supportive of those developmental programs and activities that deal with peer pressure and substance abuse. Organizations such as BACCHUS and SADD, despite their philosophy of drinking in moderation, drinking responsibly, and if you drink don't drive, do not compromise prevention efforts. Thus, the roles may be paradoxical, but they are intentionally complementary and serve to deal with substance abuse and to broaden our approach and function. Universities must take action; by not responding with preventive measures, the latter role prevails in the struggle with the substance abuse problem that confronts us all.

The Substance Abuse Problem on Campus

To determine the extent of the problem on campus it is first necessary to define substance abuse. Generally, the definition considers the use, misuse, and/or abuse of both legal and illegal drugs. Legal drugs include alcohol, nicotine, caffeine, and various prescription and over the counter drugs. The most popular illegal drugs are marijuana, mushrooms (psilocybin), heroin, LSD, quaaludes, cocaine and its derivatives (crack), and the designer drugs. For most programs, the main emphasis is on the illegal "hard" drugs and alcohol. The definition of a substance abuser is broadly interpreted as any

student, faculty, or staff employee who as a result of alcohol or drug consumption exhibits inappropriate behavior on a recurring basis that affects his/her lifestyle.

The recent literature and published research has helped colleges and universities grasp the extent of the substance abuse problem on campus. Generally, the literature falls into three categories. One body of research has focused on the hard or illegal drugs. Another research area, the use and abuse of alcohol, has received the greatest coverage in the literature. Additional writings have been connected with the wellness movement and have emphasized the abuse of the socially accepted drugs like nicotine, caffeine, prescription and over the counter medications. For the purpose of this article, a brief literature review is presented on the first two topics, hard drugs and alcohol.

Hard Drugs

Several studies report the percentage of college students who have used various hard drugs (Snodgrass and Wright, 1983). Most often, the term "use" is defined as consuming or taking a drug on at least one occasion. Typically the reports suggest that about 65 percent of all college students have used marijuana with a higher percentage of males using than females. The use of LSD is generally lower with less than ten percent having used this drug. Cocaine is reported as a drug that was used more frequently than in the 1970's and the current estimates indicate that cocaine had been tried by approximately 30 percent of the college population. Again, males tended to use this drug more often than females, although this trend may be changing (Traub, 1983). Heroin use remained consistent with about one percent of the students having tried this drug. One researcher had noted that mushroom use was up with a 10 to 13 percent reported use by students (Thompson, Anglin, Emboden, and Fisher, 1985). Although the facts and figures did not always agree, the results did portray a college experience in which drugs were available on a regular basis.

Perhaps the most sought after information concerns the etiology of drug use, with the hope that once causes are identified then the prevention programs would easily follow. Most of the research focuses on personality and family correlates of drug use (DeForest and Hays, 1975-76). Typically, the research suggests most drug use is associated with lowered life satisfaction, boredom, lack of school spirit, and personal problems (Wright and Moore, 1982). Family factors correlated with drug abuse highlighted poor communication between parents and children (Jurich, Polson, Jurich and

Bates, 1985), inconsistent or autocratic style of parental discipline, and permissive parental attitudes towards drugs, including the socially accepted drugs like caffeine, nicotine, and alcohol (Tudor, Petersen, and Elifson, 1980). Unfortunately, for some, the reason for using drugs is that drugs are just part of the routine of college life (Greene, 1987).

In general, the literature is fairly uniform regarding the trends of drug use. Essentially, hard drug use on campus is about the same as it has been for the past five years, except for a slight increase in cocaine and crack use and more experimentation with the novelty or designer drugs. College students know that hard drugs are available on campus and consequently use these drugs with some regularity.

Alcohol

A much greater proportion of the research on substance abuse pertains to the problem of alcohol use and abuse on campus. The topics include the change in drinking age (Connell, 1985), drinking and driving (Valois, 1986), disciplinary and personal problems associated with drinking (Engs, 1977), policies and local enforcement strategies (Gadeleto and Anderson, 1986), and the correlates of heavy drinking patterns (Wechsler and Rohman, 1981). One study (Valois, 1986) cites the loss of life and property that occurs when students drink and drive, noting that 45 to 60 percent of deaths in young people are related to alcohol. Not surprisingly, many authors agree with the statement in a recent issue of the *Chronicle of Higher Education* that despite the concerns about students' use of other drugs, alcohol is still the number one substance abuse problem on campus (Hirschorn, 1987).

Surveys depicting the severity of alcohol problems are plentiful in the literature. The standard was set by the 1953 article by Straus and Bacon revealing that 79 percent of the college men and 65 percent of the college women were drinkers. This time honored aspect of college life has been surveyed more recently indicating that currently 90 to 95 percent of all college students are drinkers (Eddy, 1983). Most of the research investigating the trends over time suggest that drinking habits are relatively stable, but that the awareness of university officials has risen dramatically in the past few years (Hanson and Engs, 1984). Recent findings indicate that more women are now drinking, that fewer Black men are drinking, and that there are fewer differences between the drinking habits of the academic classes (Cooper, 1981; Humphrey, Stephens, and Allen, 1983). Even though methodological and sampling differences produce varying results, it still seems accurate to state that no other group in the country has a higher proportion of drinkers

than college students (Gonzalez, 1986). To point out that alcohol is a major problem, many researchers reported the percentage of students in various drinking categories. In general, results indicate that of the 90 to 95 percent who drink, approximately half were classified as light drinkers, 35 percent as moderate drinkers, and 15 percent as heavy drinkers. In one study, 21 percent of the students identified themselves as heavy drinkers, drinking a minimum of six or more drinks at one setting at least once a week (Hirschorn, 1987).

The literature suggested a number of variables associated with drinking. One study indicated that the two most powerful factors influencing drinking habits were the college environment and family drinking patterns (Deakin and Cohen, 1986). Another study investigated the socio-cultural and familial antecedents of drinking and found that parents' alcohol consumption, high school drinking patterns, and age and extent of first drinking experiences were significant predictors (Friedman and Humphrey, 1985; Humphrey and Friedman, 1986). One researcher reported that motivation was a key factor that differentiates between heavy and more moderate drinkers (Wechsler and Rohman, 1981). Many students were motivated to get drunk and getting drunk was a primary social activity for the heavy drinkers.

In general, the issue of alcohol abuse is more difficult to address since alcohol is a legal drug that is accepted socially. It seems that learning how to "hold your booze" is a rite of passage to adulthood via the college route. Advertisers know this and closely link drinking with sex, companionship, adventure, excitement, and maturity, issues that confront college students daily.

Summary of Campus Drug and Alcohol Use

In summary, most research indicated that drug and alcohol use has been fairly stable over the past five years with perhaps slight decreases in use for a few drugs. However, the problem is still substantial on practically every college campus. The common trend is that many students who have problems related to substance abuse are actively involved in poly-drug use patterns (Snodgrass and Wright, 1983). For example, drinking is correlated with marijuana smoking and the use of other drugs, and many drugs are used sequentially to manage things like sleep, waking up, excitement, etc. The studies are descriptive and do not reveal a cause and effect relationship, yet the implications for campus programs are clear. Programs must include components that address both alcohol *and* drug abuse. The university must consider approaches that are preventive and educational, and at the same

time there is a substantial need to provide treatment opportunities. The latter is especially controversial since most colleges do not want to view themselves as centers for the treatment of alcoholism and drug problems. Yet there are many students, staff, and faculty who do not need long term rehabilitation but would benefit from some type of limited treatment sponsored by the university. Viable alternatives for abuse behavior, e.g. wellness activities, co-curricular involvement, and academic commitments, must also be an integral part of the universities' response to the drug and alcohol problem.

The Proposed ASAP Model

After six months' work, the Appalachian State University Substance Abuse Task Force recommended that an office called the Appalachian Student Assistance Program (ASAP) be created for the purpose of establishing a program that is aimed at the primary prevention of alcohol and drug abuse on campus (Sehwan, 1980). The objectives of the ASAP program are to: (1) prevent curiosity oriented drug experimenters from becoming regular users; (2) prevent light and moderate drinkers from developing more serious drinking patterns; and (3) to assess and refer current users and abusers to appropriate on and off campus treatment facilities.

Philosophically, it is recommended that the ASAP be based on the assumption that the university has both the responsibility and the opportunity for significant and positive impact on the current and future lifestyles of students, especially in their attitudes and behaviors concerning alcohol and drugs. Organizationally, it is suggested that the Student Assistance Program be located in the Division of Student Affairs, preferably in conjunction with a wellness office or center. The link with campus wellness alternatives is important (The American College Health Association's Statement on College Alcohol and Drug Abuse, 1986) since the principles of health promotion may be advanced as a positive replacement for the perceived need to use alcohol and drugs. Whereas a wellness center promotes self-responsibility for lifestyle decisions, it is ideally suited for the alcohol and drug prevention program.

Rationale for ASAP Model

Several resources and program descriptions were consulted in the development of the ASAP, including the document *Schools Without Drugs* (1986), model programs from a diverse set of colleges and universities (e.g.

Juniata College, University of Maryland, University of Puget Sound, Towson State University, and the TAAP at Penn State), proposals by government agencies (Rouner, 1986), and a telephone survey of other campuses completed by the Task Force on Substance Abuse. The acronym ASAP was chosen because the purpose of the Student Assistance Program parallels the purpose of the well established Employee Assistance Program (EAP) models found in business and industry. Expanding the title to the Appalachian Student Assistance Program adds a personal and local touch. ASAP also stands for "As Soon As Possible" and conveys an important message about the urgency of the problem, and finally, ASAP describes the Agency for Substance Abuse Prevention, a newly created government organization responsible for drug and alcohol programs. The primary functions of the program are as follows:

A. Education and Prevention

The emphasis will be on primary prevention of substance abuse and general education about a variety of issues related to addictions, alcohol drinking habits, and the signs and dangers of substance abuse. Information will be disseminated to the campus community with the goal of *changing attitudes* regarding the acceptability and desirability of alcohol and drugs (Triplett, 1987). Cooperation with other organizations such as BACCHUS will be another aspect of this function.

B. Training

The ASAP will provide training for the many offices and individuals within Student Affairs and the University who are required to manage issues related to drug and alcohol use. For example, training sessions for Residence Life Staff and Security Personnel would highlight legal and ethical concerns, confrontation and assessment skills. The ASAP will also be a site for undergraduate and graduate academic training including internships and practica.

C. Assessment and Referral

Accepting referrals from a variety of sources would be perhaps the most important function of the program (Buchanan and Tilden, 1986; Rapaport and Stonebrunner, 1986). Students may be self-referred or referred as a consequence of on or off campus judicial proceedings. The ASU Student and Administrative Judicial Boards are making such referrals as part of the sanction process. These referrals to university and/or county mental health services are presently made in the form of recommendations. A long range goal is to work towards mandatory referrals as part of the educational and awareness program efforts.

The off-campus referral efforts are channeled through the Office of Residence Life. A working relationship has been established with the

county and district court systems' community service departments. This program assigns students, who are given community service hours as part of their criminal sentence for alcohol and/or drug violations, to Residence Life to plan, develop, and implement programs and activities on alcohol and drug awareness for the ASU university community.

The Residence Life staff also has implemented a new Intervention System in dealing with violations of Student Law and Residence Hall policies and procedures. Students must meet with professional staff when several violations have occurred prior to being referred. They also must meet with this staff person for a "post-trial" conference. Referrals may take place at this time and are recommended when the circumstances indicate that such action is needed.

The ASAP, through these functions listed above and modeled after traditional EAPs, provides one place on campus where an individual, regardless of referral source, type or severity of problem, can obtain a professional evaluation of his/her situation followed by an appropriate referral. The reader is invited to review the writings of McGuirk (1980) and Wrich (1980) for examples, descriptions, and evaluations of a variety of Employee Assistance Programs.

D. Consultation

The consultation function of the ASAP would encompass several activities. One type of consultation is the sharing of expertise with offices such as the Counseling and Psychological Center that have special needs regarding substance abuse. A second type of consultation is a service to committees or program directors who have specific planning responsibilities, e.g. student and parent orientation, new faculty orientation, staff development, etc., and want to include drug and alcohol information with their programs. A third type of consultation is the establishment of connections with the various community organizations and projects that are interested in similar topics. Finally, another type of consultation is an outreach package developed as 45 minute modules available for instructors to use when sick, traveling, or interested in using class time to address substance abuse concerns.

E. Treatment

The emphasis in this function is on providing therapeutic help (O'Connell and Beck, 1984) and counseling for high risk students. For example, an Adult Children of Alcoholics (ACOA) Group would be offered (Downing and Walker, 1987) and/or a support group called SMART (Students Maintaining Abstinence Through Recovery Together, Dodson, 1987).

F. Applied Research

This is a two component function. The first is a *needs assessment* component to identify the extent and severity of the substance abuse problem, not only for current students, staff, and faculty, but also for entering students. The second is an *evaluation* component to consider the effectiveness of the ASAP (Royse, Keller, and Schwartz, 1982).

Evaluation

Three types of evaluation procedures will be used in the ASAP:

1. Self-Report

   Students will be surveyed regarding their knowledge about drugs and alcohol, and their reported use of alcohol and drugs. Changes in these survey responses will be used as self-report criteria.

2. Administrative

   This is a record of how many students attend programs, workshops, etc., and how many services are offered by the ASAP. An administrative evaluation also includes a determination of how satisfactorily the goals and objectives have been successfully met.

3. Epidemiological

   This method will look at changes in the frequency of various behaviors associated with drug and alcohol use, for example: the number of students who come to the Counseling Center or Health Services with drug or alcohol related problems; the number of alcohol and drug related disciplinary actions reported by Residence Life, Student Affairs, Security, and Student Court; the number of informal incidents reported by the Resident Directors and Resident Advisors in the residence halls.

Summary

The purpose of this paper was to provide ideas, guidelines, and options for responding to the problem of drug and alcohol abuse on the college campus by proposing a model for the design of a campus drug and alcohol prevention program. The model included a literature review, an outline of the Appalachian Student Assistance Program, a description of the various functions of the ASAP, and recommendations for evaluating the program. Implementation strategies and personnel considerations have not been proposed since these decisions are dependent on the mission and organization of each Division of Student Affairs. Currently at Appalachian State

University a followup planning group was appointed to use the ASAP model prepared by the Substance Abuse Task Force to seek funding for the program.

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3

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Assessing Needs of Sexual Assault Victims on a University Campus

Sexual assault is a significant problem on college campuses. Sexual assault is here defined as including rape (coerced intercourse), attempted rape, or other sexual offenses perpetrated by men against women. Koss et al. (1987), in a national sample of college students, found that 27.5% of college women reported experiencing an act that met the legal definition of rape (including attempted rape), and that 53.7% of college women revealed some form of sexual victimization. Rapaport and Burkhart (1984) reported that 15% of a sample of college men acknowledged having obtained sexual intercourse against their dates' will.

Sexual assault among the college population is rarely visible to authorities. Research with victims suggests that between 5% (Koss et al., 1987) and 29% (Kilpatrick et al., 1985) of victims report the crime to police. The percentage of victims who report to police is larger when the assailant is unknown and decreases when the assailant is known. Mynatt and Allgeier (1987) found that half of the women who had been victimized by strangers reported the crime, whereas only 2% of those who knew their assailant reported the assault to police.

Sexual assault by acquaintances, or date rape, appears to be particularly prevalent among the college-age population. Kanin (1985) studied self-disclosed rapists who were college undergraduates; all of their rapes involved date rape and the majority had had two to five dates with their

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victims prior to the rape. Other studies of college women students have indicated that between 86% (Byers et al., 1977) and 99% (Parcell & Kanin, 1976) of victims knew their assailants.

The use of weapons and physical force is less common in rapes involving the college population than among other groups. The most frequently reported form of coercion is verbal — ignoring the woman's protests is a common strategy (Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984). Other forms of coercion commonly used are drugs, extortion, fraud, and lying (Kanin, 1985).

The lack of physical force may partially explain why so few assaults among this population are reported to police. It appears that in many situations both parties are somewhat confused as to whether or not what occurred was actually rape. Byers (1979) studied college women who were assaulted and asked them why they had not reported the assault to the police. The primary reasons for not reporting were that it was a private matter and that the victim felt herself to be partially to blame.

The present study was undertaken in order to determine the extent of the problem of sexual assault at East Carolina University and to identify needed services for victims. Rumors about the high incidence of sexual assault have persisted among students over time; however, these rumored assaults are rarely reported to either campus security or the local police. Suggestions by the Sexual Assault Awareness Committee, a voluntary committee of concerned students, staff, and faculty, for additional services for sexual assault victims were met with requests to document the need. Based on the low number of reported assaults, specific services for this group did not appear to be warranted. In an effort to discover more about the incidence of sexual assault among the college population, a survey of college women was undertaken.

Method

The survey was conducted with women living in campus residence halls and members of campus sororities. These groups were selected due to availability and ease of administration of the survey. Student members of the campus Sexual Assault Awareness Committee distributed a one-page survey among the female residents of each dormitory during a weekday evening. Each floor was visited and all female residents who were available were asked to complete the survey. Respondents were given approximately ten minutes to complete the survey. After distributing the surveys, the student distributors returned to pick up the completed surveys, which were placed anonymously in a manila envelope. In an effort to broaden the sample group,

members of the sorority coordinating council were also asked to complete the survey during a meeting.

The survey instrument was a one-page questionnaire concerning the student's experience with sexual assault and her preference for services for victims. Demographic data of age, race, and year in college were also collected. Throughout the survey, sexual assault was defined as unwanted sexual activity and was separated into unwanted touching, attempted rape, and completed rape. Respondents were asked whether they had known anyone who had been a victim and if they had been a victim of sexual assault themselves. If they had been victimized they were asked to indicate when the assault occurred, how well they had known the assailant, and whether or not they had talked with anyone about the incident. All respondents, whether or not they had been victims, were asked to indicate the type of services they thought would be helpful to have on campus for victims.

A total of 349 surveys were collected from both groups; 299 were received from dormitory residents (approximately 10.5% of total female residents) and 50 were received from sorority members (approximately 8.3% of the total membership). This return rate is not unusual for survey methodology; however, generalizations beyond the sample groups must be made with caution.

Frequency data were obtained for all variables. Since the majority of the data were nominal level and the survey was primarily designed as a needs assessment, sophisticated analyses were not indicated. Cross-tabulations and chi-square analyses were conducted where appropriate.

Results

Victim data. The mean age of respondents was 19.68 years, with a range between 17 and 23. The majority (75.6%) were white, and 16.3% were black. (the largest group (38.4%) were sophomores, with the next largest freshmen (30.4%).

Forty-eight percent of respondents had known someone who was a victim of sexual assault. Most frequently (42.4%) this was a friend; only 4.3% knew a relative who had been assaulted.

Approximately one-third of all respondents (34.4%) had personally been a victim of some form of sexual assault; however, only 7.2% of respondents considered themselves to have been victims of rape (See Table 1.) Of those who had been victimized, 55% had been victims of unwanted touching, 21.7% had been victims of attempted rape, and 20.8% had been victims of completed rape.

Table 1

Sexual Assault Among Respondents

	Frequency	Percentage of Respondents	Percentage of Victims
Victim of Unwanted Touching	66	18.9%	55.0%
Victim of Attempted Rape	26	7.4	21.7
Victim of Rape	25	7.2	20.8
More than One Incident	3	.9	2.5
Never been Victim	229	65.6	—
Total	349	100.0%	100.0%

Respondents were asked to indicate at what point during their lives the sexual assault had occurred. Unwanted touching was most frequent during college ($p < .01$), whereas attempted rape and rape had occurred in very similar frequencies in college and high school (See Table 2.)

Respondents were asked how well they had known the assailant before the attack. Ninety percent of those victimized reported having known the assailant at least "a little bit" prior to the attack.

Talking about the assault. Respondents who were victims were asked to indicate people with whom they had talked about the assault. The largest group (81.7%) had talked with a friend about the incident. The next highest

Table 2

Type of Victimization by When it Occurred

	College	High School	Before High School	Total
Unwanted Touching	38	16	12	66
	32.0%	13.4%	10.1%	55.5%
Attempted Rape	11	13	3	27
	9.2%	10.9%	2.5%	22.7%
Rape	9	10	7	26
	7.5%	8.4%	5.9%	21.8%
Total	58	39	22	119
	48.8%	32.8%	18.5%	100.0%

Table 3

People Victims Talked with About the Assault

Person	Frequency	Percentage
Friend	98	81.7%
Family member	45	37.5
Counselor	11	9.0
Minister	10	8.0
Police	9	7.5
Teacher	8	6.7
Health care provider	3	2.5
Other	3	2.5

frequency response (37.5%) was in talking with a family member. Other people were chosen by only a small percentage of victims (See Table 3.) Of those who had been victimized while in college, only 7.4% had talked with a counselor, compared with 81.5% who had talked with a friend about the assault. Only 16% of the rape victims had reported the crime to the police.

Perceived need for campus services. Respondents were asked to choose from a list of potential services that could be sponsored by the university, and a space was provided for them to add other options. Respondents were instructed to choose as many options as they thought would be helpful. Most respondents chose several of the options, so this item was only moderately successful as a measure for discriminating the most needed services within limited resources. Table 4 depicts the frequencies with which options were chosen by all respondents as well as those chosen by respondents who had been victims. All options were popular and very little distinction among them exists.

Table 4

Respondents' Preference for Campus Services

Potential Service	Overall Percentage	Victims' Percentage
Individual Counseling	69.6%	70.9%
Support Group	67.9	73.5
Self-defense Class	67.3	68.4
Education/Prevention Class	63.0	67.5
Health Examination/Care	61.6	61.5

Individual counseling was chosen by the largest percentage of respondents (69.6%), whereas the support group was considered to be the most helpful by victims (73.5%). For both groups, health examination and care were considered to be the least helpful of the options given (61.6% of all respondents; 61.5% of victims). Only 4.6% of respondents wrote in other options, and these were mostly incorporated by existing options.

Discussion and Implications

Sexual assault on the ECU campus is a problem, but it may be less of a problem than among the national college population. Approximately 15.5% of our respondents had experienced rape or attempted rape, as compared with 27.5% in Koss et al.'s 1987 study. Differences in methodology, however, may account for the differences in results between the two studies. In addition, it is difficult to ascertain how similar dormitory residents and sorority members are to the typical female college student, so generalizations to the total campus population are problematic. The percentage of victims, however, does indicate the need for intervention by the university into the problem of sexual assault among its student population.

Although the percentage of respondents who were victims of rape or attempted rape was similar in college and high school, the amount of unwanted touching greatly increased during college. It appears that pressure for sexuality is much stronger in college than in high school, and that many female students can recognize unwanted touching as sexual assault. Since 90% of victims knew their assailant, date rape and other forms of coerced sexuality appear to be significant problems to be addressed within the university. Sexual assault prevention programs, therefore, should be directed toward men as well as women. Clear and appropriate communication in dating situations should be stressed. Males and females must both be taught to acknowledge and respect their own and each other's decisions regarding sexuality.

Survey results provide only minimal direct guidance as to the type of services for victims that should receive first priority if university resources are limited. Respondents tended to consider that all options were valuable. This can be interpreted to imply that female students feel a lack of university support for dealing with the problem of sexual assault. A few services, such as individual counseling and health care, currently exist but are relatively underutilized by victims. The results of this survey seem to indicate that these traditional services may not be as helpful as some other forms of service.

For example, campus security currently sponsors programs dealing with

education and prevention of sexual assault. Students are urged to report a sexual assault to the security office, but few incidents are reported. Since most sexual assaults involve acquaintances, it is unlikely that the reporting rate of this type of incident is going to be greatly increased. Certainly, students should continue to be encouraged to report the crime, but additional services should also be available. Since most victims talk only with a friend, education/prevention programs should include information about the rape trauma syndrome (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1979), how and when to report an incident to the police, investigation procedures and information about the rape kit exam (Martin et al., 1985) if the victim should decide to report the crime, and information about other campus services. Possibly third party reporting, in which a victim reports the crime without intending to prosecute but merely to provide this information to the security office, should be more strongly encouraged. Additional emphasis should be placed on educating students about how to help if a friend becomes a victim of sexual assault.

It is interesting to note that, although respondents advocated the helpfulness of individual counseling, few victims make use of this service that is already provided on campus. Perhaps individual counseling sounds more helpful for other people than for oneself. Rape crisis centers report that individual counseling is most frequently provided during the crisis phase immediately after the rape occurs and that requests for counseling decrease thereafter (Martin et al., 1984). Individual counseling within the university, therefore, should probably focus on crisis intervention rather than long-term treatment and should be available on an expanded schedule to include evenings and weekends.

Victims of sexual assault indicated their preference for a support group as slightly higher than that for individual counseling. Time-limited and personal growth oriented support groups have been reported to be successful with victims who were reluctant to enter treatment that was pathology-oriented or open-ended in duration (Yassen & Glass, 1984). Development of a support group sponsored by existing university programs seems to be indicated by the results of the survey.

In summary, sexual assault is a problem for college campuses that should be addressed by the implementation of education and prevention programs for both sexes and for services designed specifically for victims. Traditional services are rarely used, so alternative services must be developed in order to meet the need. Education programs that focus on the emotional needs of sexual assault victims should be developed and widely disseminated on campus. Education programs should also contain information about third party reporting or other means of establishing that a crime was committed

even if a victim declines to prosecute. Classes in self-defense should be included in the education/prevention effort. Crisis counseling should be available to victims during the hours when sexual assaults are likely to occur. Regularly scheduled support groups for victims provide an alternative to pathology-based psychotherapy.

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4

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College Admissions and Handicapped Students

The question of going to college has always been a complicated one for students with handicaps. Often unprepared or underprepared, these students are anxious about getting into postsecondary institutions. Their anxiety is matched by that of the institutions who are concerned with being able to cope with these students and who often are unprepared or underprepared themselves. This paper examines the current admissions practices in relation to handicapped students and identifies issues and strategies for institutional consideration.

The Admissions Process and the Handicapped Student

Initially, the colleges' concerns center around the admissions decision itself. The procedure is fairly straightforward. Most colleges identify certain admissions criteria; the student meets those criteria; and the college offers admission. Then the student either accepts or rejects the opportunity to enroll at the college. Although these three steps summarize the most common sequence of events, the process for handicapped college applicants is not this simple.

Hippolitus (undated) reports that freshmen with disabilities, typically older than the traditional freshmen, tend to earn lower grades in high school and consequently tend to place lower in class standings. Putnam (1984) points out that the lower rankings may be reflections of a student's handicap.

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Hippolitus also found disabled students have lower self-concepts and greater need of financial aid. Handicaps that cause problems with high school curricula, grades, mobility, and self-concept exist when the student applies to college, whether it is immediately after high school or not. The handicap, by its very nature, cannot be ignored or avoided, and it does not go away.

In addition to the very real effects of the handicap, the disabled student who applies to college can become the victim of discrimination, sometimes deceptively subtle, sometimes not. Colleges, intimidated by the handicap, may inform the student that although otherwise qualified, he or she would not be able to function in the profession for which training is desired. It may be pointed out to the handicapped student that even if the institution makes accommodations, licensing agencies and employers for many professions do not, and that even with appropriate training the student may not be able to work in a chosen profession. Sometimes, the college may simply acknowledge the lack of preparation for handicapped students on campus and advise the student that appropriate services and accommodations cannot be provided. Surprisingly, this latter approach can, under the right circumstances, be considered legal, albeit marginally.

Legal Requirements of Section 504

The Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Federal Register, 1980, May 9) contains language designed to make college more accessible for all students and to eliminate the situations posited above. Specifically, Section 504 of this legislation declares that an institution which receives federal monies shall not discriminate on the basis of handicap. The intent of the law is not to grant students access because of the handicap, but simply to prevent exclusion because of it (Mangrum & Strichart, 1984, p. 15). The legislation identifies specific handicaps, yet goes on to say that Section 504 covers students generally considered to be handicapped, whether or not documentation exists. Regardless of handicapping conditions, students must be as qualified to enter the particular institution as every other student who gains admission. The law, which should be applied to individuals on a case-by-case basis, provides that handicapped students cannot be treated as a group, and it requires that the merits of each applicant be considered individually (Mangrum & Strichart, 1984, p. 18).

Subpart E, Section 104.42 of Section 504 specifically covers admission and recruitment issues. Institutions cannot legally inquire about handicaps prior to admission except in strictly defined situations. Even then, that

information cannot be used in the decision-making process. Schools may not exercise a standard that has a disproportionate, adverse effect on handicapped students, and they may not limit the number or proportion of handicapped students admitted (Mangrum & Strichart, 1984, p. 13). Redden, Levering, DeQuinzio, & The Task Force on a Model Admissions Policy (1978) identify eight admission activities, beginning with recruitment and ending with grievance procedures, where the law applies. Section 504 stipulates that institutions need to remove both physical and psychological barriers (Redden et al., 1978). It is also the intent of the law that, once admitted, handicapped students should function as full and active members of the campus community (Mangrum & Strichart, 1984 p. 17).

Once the student has been admitted, full academic access is difficult to implement. For example, hearing-impaired students who need to see a play in the evening for a theatre class will need interpreters; learning disabled students who use word processing for written work will need access to word processing during testing; and students who use wheelchairs will need extra consideration in planning off-campus activities. In classrooms, access has the potential of coming into conflict with usual classroom procedures. Sometimes instructors are uncomfortable with tape recorders in the classroom; yet a visually impaired student may need to record lectures.

As can be imagined, Section 504 has been the object of much litigation. The Grove City decision (Grove City College V. Bell, 104 S.Ct. 1121. 1984), although it dealt specifically with Title IX, turned out to be the most significant of the challenges to this law. In the Grove City case, the United States Supreme Court ruled that only the program that directly receives federal funding is affected by the legislation (Di Donato, 1986). The findings in that case have since been applied in Section 504 rulings. In a recent, significant turn of events, on March 22, 1988, Congress decisively overrode a presidential veto of the Civil Rights Restoration Act of 1987. This legislation reinstates the original meaning of the term "recipient of federal monies". As was originally intended, all components of the institution are now again included under Section 504 ("Civil Rights Restoration Act Passes," 1988). Handicapped college applicants need to be aware of the implications of this legislation and the Grove City decision as they attempt to find a program and a school to meet their needs. Even though the Civil Rights Restoration Act is newer legislation and should override the Grove City decision, schools have not yet had time to consider the effects of this new law. Regardless of the changes, specific questions still need to be addressed to particular institutions to find out if students needs can or will be accommodated.

In fall 1985, 7.4% of the nation's college freshmen identified themselves as having a disability. This statistic shows a marked increase over 1978 when only 2.6% of the nation's freshmen so identified themselves (Hippolitus, undated). According to Hippolitus (undated, p. 2), 10.4% of the American population is estimated to have some sort of disability. Considering the available information about the prevalence of handicaps in the general population and information about handicapped students in college, he believes that the percentage of handicapped students in higher education should be about 8.5% of the total number of students. The gap between the numbers of identified students in college and the number who should or could be there highlights the issue of access to higher education for handicapped students.

Killpack and Romero (1983) point out that disabled students do not apply to college in the same proportions as nondisabled students. In a study they undertook in 1983 in California, they found that only 18% of the disabled juniors took the PSAT and 22% of the disabled seniors took the SAT. Aubrey (1985) points out that 32.5% of all of the nation's high school students finish high school and go on to college. Jarrow (1986, p. 10) claims that as many as 50% to 65% of the nation's nondisabled students go on to college and that less than 40% of the disabled students who might be considered college material actually pursue higher education. The difference between the numbers of disabled students who prepare for college and the number of nonhandicapped students who make it to college is cause for alarm among disabled populations. To further highlight the discrepancy, the 1982 study of White et al. (cited in Mangrum & Strichart, 1984) reports that 67% of young learning disabled adults wanted to attempt higher education.

Mangrum and Strichart (1984) identify three types of college admission policies: a) open admissions, b) regular admissions, and c) special admissions. Two-year schools tend to have open admissions policies and because of that are viewed as good options for handicapped students. The open admission policies encourage applications from students who would expect rejections at schools with regular admission policies. However, Schmidt and Sprandel (1982, p. 53) caution students and professionals that open door institutions often do not adequately identify all the handicapped students on campus and, consequently, do not provide appropriate support services. Hippolitus (undated, p. 4) estimates that better than 20% of first time, full-time freshmen in two-year schools have disabilities.

The three most common criteria used by colleges for admissions purposes are: a) high school grades, b) aptitude tests (such as the SAT or the ACT), and

c) the pattern of high school courses (Langston & Boylls, 1987, p. 186). Preer (cited in Langston & Boylls, 1987) corroborates this with her 1983 study. She found that 84% of four-year schools use high school grades, 55% use test scores (such as SAT or ACT scores), and 38% use the pattern of high school courses as primary information in making admissions decisions. Some of the disabled students, particularly students with learning disabilities, are denied access because of these types of criteria (Schmidt & Sprandel, 1982, p. 53). These students find themselves unable to compete successfully, especially on the standardized aptitude tests, and, as a result, are not even considered likely candidates for higher education. Preer suggests that two-year and nonselective four-year colleges should consider diagnostic and placement testing after the student enrolls. Requiring the standardized tests beforehand, in effect, can emphasize the disability. Preer also suggests that institutions should look at flexible admissions policies, even when the trend leans strongly toward stiffer admissions requirements. She offers the value-added concept as a way to maintain student enrollments and yet ascertain that graduates possess the requisite skills.

McCurdy (1982), in making a case for raising academic standards, states that academically poor students take too much time, effort and money away from other students. He quotes officials from the higher education community who support his view concerning the need for tougher admission standards to keep students from merely entering the college for a short term and flunking out. He applauds the actions of the Ohio higher education system, Florida State University, and the California state university system, all of which tightened admissions requirements and, in some cases, eliminated open door admissions. He ignores, as do other writers (Dennis, 1986; Carnegie Council on Policy Studies, 1977), the effect of these stiffer policies on disadvantaged and handicapped students.

In North Carolina, a number of the senior, public institutions provide appropriate support services as well as diagnostic and assessment services. The minimum admissions requirements which will be in effect for students beginning college in the constituent institutions of the University of North Carolina in the fall of 1990, however, will have implications for handicapped students. Because of the handicaps, some of the students will not have taken the "right" courses in high school. Other students, because of necessary load limitations, may not have time during the four-year high school program to take all the courses they should. To guarantee equal access and to continue to maintain the diversity in student populations, exceptions to the admissions policies for these students will be necessary.

Harris (1985) observes that in the nation's secondary schools an emphasis on rescuing rather than empowering students with special needs exists and

that special educators, parents, guidance counselors, and the students have not done well in preparing for higher education. He also points out that involvement with special education or special programs seems to preclude any college preparation activities. He suggests that both secondary and postsecondary institutions need to share the responsibility for preparing students for higher education.

Studies of the higher education admissions process have been conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB). The latest work, by Willingham (1987), specifically studies handicapped applicants and the admissions decisions which affect them. Because of the CEEB's interest in the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), he discusses some of the issues surrounding that particular test. One issue that has been discussed widely concerns the practice of "flagging" the SAT scores of the 5,000 to 6,000 students who take the test every year in non-standard situations. The CEEB offers students with documented disabilities the option to taking the test much in the same way they function in high school, that is taking the test: a) in an alternate format, such as Braille; b) with special arrangements, such as in a separate room or with a reader; or c) with extended time. The scores of the handicapped students are identified with a flag when reported to institutions. The institutions then receive the information that a handicap exists before an admissions decision is made. According to CEEB, the flag notifies the institution that the results of this test cannot be certified as valid and reliable. Scheiber and Talpers (1985) recommend that handicapped students, particularly the learning disabled, decide whether or not to identify themselves as handicapped before applying and receiving a decision from the institution (p. 78). Flagging, even though it is specifically allowed by the Department of Education (Rothstein, 1986, p. 245), nullifies the validity of the students' decisions.

Willingham (1987) compared academic qualifications of the disabled students with their nonhandicapped peers and found that physically handicapped and visually impaired students achieved grades slightly below their peers', learning disabled students' grades were even lower, and hearing-impaired students' the lowest. Willingham's work notwithstanding, Jarrow (1986, p. 23) states that currently no reliable figures exist for college students with disabilities.

In examining admissions decisions, Willingham (1987) found that institutions admitted handicapped students largely on the same basis as the nonhandicapped. He did find, however, that hearing-impaired students had slightly higher admissions rates than the other handicapped students, that visually and physically impaired students were not as likely to be admitted at small institutions and that the learning disabled students had the hardest time

among other handicapped students in gaining admission. He also found that only about one institution in four does special recruiting of handicapped students and that few exceptions to admissions policies for handicapped students exist; certainly no more than for athletes. It should be pointed out here again, that the law does not require recruiting of handicapped students, just that admissions information be made available to them (Redden et al., 1978, p. 9).

Willingham (1987) points out that institutions are not required to alter admission standards, only to apply them equitably. O'Brien and Ross (1981) go further in defining admissions standards and divide standards into academic and technical ones. Academic standards are easily defined as the qualifications such as test scores and high school grades, that indicate an applicant's achievement in academic areas. Technical standards are non-academic but essential to participation in the program in question and can only be determined by appropriate faculty members. Consequently, faculty members at various institutions may not agree on the definition of a qualified student for a particular program. This lack of common definition reemphasizes the need for individual consideration of each handicapped student's application.

Institutional Responsibilities and Strategies

Higher education institutions have long worked with handicapped students, sometimes knowingly, sometimes not. Most institutions have been just plain lucky in working with this group of students. Students, by and large, do not contest admissions decisions. When accommodations are not available on a particular campus, they generally just do without and do the best they can. This state of affairs, however, is not likely to continue, given the group of handicapped students who are now applying to postsecondary education. These students, "products" of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142), are accustomed to accommodations, to individual educational planning and to accountability for faculty and staff members. We in higher education must plan to serve these students, whether or not they are already on our campuses.

Issues raised in working with handicapped students deal with law, ethics, and institutional identity (Liberman, 1987). The first consideration at the admissions level is whether or not the applicant is handicapped and whether or not that handicap limits the student in any major life activity. At this point, identification as a handicapped student should rest entirely with the student since 504 prohibits asking about handicaps before an admissions decision is

made. Students who choose to identify themselves should be ready to provide documentation, preferably no more than three years old, and to discuss the effects of the handicap on their learning. The student should be able to discuss with the admissions personnel what modifications and accommodations will be necessary. At this point, the institution can discuss candidly what support services are possible on this campus. Although the institution that receives federal dollars must give students access to programs, it is not expected that a curriculum will be fundamentally altered or that a new and different program will be created (Liberman, 1987). It must be clear to all involved that access does not guarantee success; that is, an institution is not expected to guarantee that a student will do well or eventually graduate. The only sure thing is that a student has an opportunity to try.

The next issue to be considered is whether or not the student is "otherwise qualified." In other words, if this student were not disabled, would he or she be admitted? This is a difficult issue because the disability often stands out as the student's most important characteristic. Yet the admissions decision must be made on the basis of the student's ability, not disability (Mangrum & Strichart, 1984). The institution must consider whether reasonable accommodations would make a difference for the student and then must decide on a definition for reasonable accommodation.

Two of the major concerns for admissions officers in determining whether a student is otherwise qualified are the use of standardized tests in the decision-making process and the particular student's health (Rothstein, 1986, p. 244). Standardized tests may by their very nature pose an undue limitation on the student's ability to score well. For instance, a student with a sensory integration problem may have trouble keeping what has been read in mind while writing answers during standardized testing. That same student with an amanuensis may score very differently. In light of this, admissions officers are encouraged to continue to consider strongly other factors such as high school grades.

Student health becomes an issue when a student applies to a particular program in preparation for a career, whether that application is made at the time of admission to the institution or upon the completion of a general education program. Careers where potential harm to others exists, such as nursing and pharmacy, come under particular scrutiny and decisions about admissions to these types of programs need to be made fairly. Again, it is important that the focus be on the student's abilities, not the disabilities, and that decisions be made considering only facts, not assumptions, about the student and the handicap.

Third, institutions must treat handicapped students in the same way they treat all other students. If flagged SAT scores are on record, the decision needs to be made as though those scores were not flagged. Once the decision is made, however, and if that decision is to offer admission to the student, the handicap must be taken into consideration.

Admitted students have every right to expect accommodations. Nevertheless, it may be beyond the institution's capacity to provide what is needed. An example of institutional inability to provide support services would be an institution that has difficulty finding people to work as interpreters for hearing impaired students because no certified interpreters live in the area. Yet, if the institution knows about the handicap at the time of admission, the institution accepts responsibility for providing reasonable services.

Other recommendations for consideration include the following:

- Catalogs and other literature should include information about handicapped student services. Although the institution is under no obligation to recruit handicapped students, it should make efforts to ensure that handicapped students have access to information about the institution. That could mean having information on tape or in Braille for visually impaired students or providing the text of a recruiting talk to a hearing-impaired student.
- When an inquiry from a handicapped student reaches a campus, there should be a system in place that almost anyone in the administrative or instructional components of the institution can implement for responding appropriately and fully to the request.
- Each institution should develop its own definition and guidelines for each of the handicaps so that it will be clear which students qualify for services and which do not.
- A plan for serving handicapped students should be developed so that students can be directed efficiently to appropriate services. A plan that outlines services and procedures assures students of having their needs met quickly and equitably. Staff and faculty development activities should be part of that plan to provide support and information to help those who provide direct services to students with handicaps.
- Beyond identifying who is responsible for working with the handicapped students, appropriate services, many of which may already be in place, need to be identified. Staff as well as faculty persons should be apprised of the need to provide services to this population.
- Some institutional systems and regulations may need to be altered to accommodate students with disabilities. For instance, students may

need to be allowed to register earlier than their peers to allow for selection of appropriate instructors or to facilitate support services such as notetakers or wheelchair attendants.

- It may be appropriate to allow students to register for less than the stated minimum full load and still remain in residence halls, even if present policy states otherwise.
- Another strategy for facilitating the process of working with handicapped students both at the admissions level and the instructional level is for the institution to become involved with the whole issue of transition. Working with high school counselors to better understand the students, both academically and socially, and to improve the counselor's understanding of the college's expectations will facilitate the process for both the student and the institution. Many of the problems that surface during the admissions process can be averted by improving communication between the two institutions while the student is still in high school and some of the problems can be corrected.

As institutions begin to explore the implications of recent legislation and begin to experience working with handicapped students, more writing dealing with this issue should appear in the higher education literature. To this point, more questions than answers have been raised regarding the role of institutions. Section 504 is a relatively new piece of legislation and clearly a final interpretation does not yet exist concerning all aspects of the higher education institution's responsibility to individual students, to its faculty members, students and alumni, and to society. Responsible institutions, however, need to be involved with these students and with finding the answers to the questions being raised.

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5

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International Awareness and Interests of Students at Three Different Institutions of The University of North Carolina

As major changes in science and technology cause our world to become smaller, there is a greater need for awareness of cultures other than our own. Yet, Americans continue to be largely ignorant of the world beyond their shores. Many of us cannot speak foreign languages and are poorly equipped to conduct business abroad. Colleges and universities throughout the United States enroll and graduate students who have little or no knowledge of the world beyond their local environment and, therefore, are unable to grasp the multi-dimensional problems associated with a shrinking world.

In response to this ever increasing problem, professionals at three universities within The University of North Carolina system conducted a special research project. The primary purpose of the project was to assess the differences among undergraduate students at three different universities relative to student awareness of and interest in international relations and issues. The three universities—Appalachian State University, The University of North Carolina at Asheville, and The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill—were chosen for the study because they seemed to represent

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three of the most prevalent types of institutions of higher education in the United States. Differences in awareness and interest in international issues among students at these three institutions may represent a national profile for each of these three types of institutions.

Institutional Characteristics

Appalachian State University (ASU), formerly a teachers' college, has developed into a comprehensive university offering a wide variety of degree programs at the baccalaureate and master's level to a student body in excess of 11,000. Most of the undergraduate students are of traditional college age and most live on campus or in private accommodations near campus. As approximately 90% of the students come from within the state, the university has a strong service mission to the State of North Carolina.

The University of North Carolina at Asheville (UNCA), a new urban university, has approximately 3,000 students, most of whom commute from their homes in Asheville and surrounding areas. A high percentage of the student body is made up of students who are older than the traditional college age. The service mission of the relatively small institution is unique in that its curriculum closely models a traditional undergraduate liberal arts institution.

The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (UNCCH) is a large research land-grant university with a student enrollment of 22,000 and a mission which stresses research, teaching, and service for the benefit of the State of North Carolina and of the nation. Most of the undergraduate students are of traditional age and live on campus or near campus. Students from out of state and foreign countries make up approximately 16% of the student body. UNCCH has earned the academic reputation of a public ivy league institution.

Defining International Literacy

In a study prepared by the Advisory Council on International Education of the Southern Governors Association, the Raleigh *News and Observer* (1986) reported that: 1) only one percent of U.S. elementary schools offer language study; 2) the African country of Botswana requires more language study by the fourth grade than the typical U.S. public school system requires by the end of high school; 3) a U.N. study of 30,000 students between the ages of 10 and 14 years old in nine countries demonstrated that U.S. students ranked next to last in their comprehension of foreign cultures; and 4) only five percent of U.S. college graduates are fluent in any foreign language.

In recent years, schools and colleges across the United States have become increasingly aware of the need for our students to become more aware of foreign languages, cultures, and international affairs. In the past several years some 70 colleges and universities have added foreign language study as a requirement either for admission or graduation. Special foreign studies institutes are also being established nationally. Economic self-interest on the part of colleges is at least partly responsible. For example, the Raleigh *News and Observer* (1986) reported that the Chase Manhattan Bank now does more recruiting at the Georgetown Center for Strategic and International Studies than it does at Harvard Business School.

Institutions of higher education are beginning to stress international education for reasons other than economic self-interest. Swanson (1969) contended that the study of international education is of interest to every educator who desires a broader perspective of educational enterprise. It is an important area of human inquiry and can lead us to a deeper understanding of the common humanity. Wong (1985) stated that in our world and in this country, cultures are in constant contact and conflict with one another. As educators we should embrace a commitment to prepare our students to understand the world in which they live and to be able to live effectively in that world.

The educational and economic self-interest of our institutions of higher education, as well as the cultural interests of our students, are served through an international awareness in higher education. Hayford (1985) summarized this reality by noting that our lives are intertwined with other peoples, other cultures, and other countries. We can easily recognize the material impact of other countries upon our lives in our automobiles, oil, clothing, shoes, tools, and raw materials. Culturally, our lives are cosmopolitan. Literature of other countries, music, and performers from around the world affect our lives. Students engage in enriching international exchanges for a semester or year. Hayford (1985) suggested that politically intense rivalries of power and ideology in our world may be caused, at least in part, when our knowledge of each other is distorted and confused.

The positive, rather than the negative, reasons for international awareness and education should be stressed. International education has been described by Moore and Tully (1983) as "worldmindedness." They contended that to develop "worldmindness" one should: 1) concentrate on likenesses, rather than differences, relating experiences in a meaningful manner; 2) develop an understanding of the ways in which various cultures have evolved; 3) develop an understanding of the interdependence of countries and an awareness of common goals; 4) stimulate students' desire to seek

information about other peoples; and 5) develop a sensitivity to different perspectives.

Carter (1985) cited advantages of internationalizing the curriculum. Among these is the opportunity to examine the scientific, social, and cultural attitudes of one's homeland in comparison to other cultures. Spees and Spees (1986) also stressed positive reasons to "internationalize" the campus. They noted that an active international program is a microcosm of humanity and is a laboratory for learning ways to live and to relate in a complex world.

There exists considerable documentation of the need to increase international awareness of students in higher education. The literature, however, does not speak to our students' awareness of and interest in international relations and the growing interdependence of people worldwide. The researchers looked at the desirability of surveying student awareness and interest in international relations on three types of campuses representative of a variety of public universities in this country.

Research Methodology

The population for the study was defined as degree-seeking undergraduate students enrolled during the fall 1986 semester at each of the three participant institutions. A simple random sample of 100 students was selected from each of the three schools. This sample size was selected to provide a sampling error of 10 percent or less. Data were collected at UNCA and ASU through a telephone survey. The UNCCH sample data were collected through an on-line CRT process where students viewed the survey items on a terminal screen and entered their responses with a keyboard. Every effort was made to ensure compatability between the two data collection procedures.

The survey instrument was designed to measure student experience and future plans on five major dimensions: 1) high school/college background; 2) interest in international affairs; 3) international travel experience; 4) contact with international students; and 5) anticipated foreign travel/work experience. The statistical analysis was based on comparing various item percentages for each of the three schools. Statistical significance was evaluated using the Chi Square distribution test.

Results

Differences in the responses of the students at the three different institutions were analyzed. A summary of selected data is contained in Table 1.

Table 1

Dimensions of International Experience by School

DIMENSION	PERCENTAGE ASU	UNCA	UNCCH	Chi-Square
HIGH SCHOOL/COLLEGE BACKGROUND				
Took more than two yrs H.S. for. lang.	35.3	30.1	51.1	22.0***
Will take for. lang. crs beyond require.	32.2	29.3	35.1	0.9
INTEREST IN FOREIGN AFFAIRS				
Follow news/events in other countries	87.3	91.0	77.0	9.6**
Source of news information:				
TV	78.4	75.2	72.3	1.0
Radio	38.2	31.6	52.1	9.8**
National news magazines	22.6	29.3	44.7	11.6**
Newspapers	60.8	71.4	68.0	3.0
Campus newspaper	9.8	2.3	53.2	100.6***
FOREIGN TRAVEL EXPERIENCE				
Traveled or lived in other countries	46.1	45.1	50.0	0.6
With family on vacation	38.4	24.1	38.3	7.3*
With family while parent in military or overseas employment	2.2	8.3	4.3	4.3
On H.S. student exchange program	12.9	1.5	12.8	13.4**
Other types of foreign travel	7.6	20.3	18.1	7.0*
CONTACT WITH FOREIGN STUDENTS				
Have had contact with foreign students	53.9	66.9	75.5	10.3**
As a roommate	8.4	2.3	18.1	17.2***
In campus organizations	20.5	6.1	39.4	38.0***
In classes/major rel. organizations	33.3	62.4	56.4	19.5***
Other forms of contact	20.7	9.9	47.9	44.0***
ANTICIPATED FOREIGN TRAVEL/WORK EXPERIENCE				
Future travel to foreign countries	88.3	88.0	96.8	6.0*
For graduate study/research	26.4	21.2	37.2	7.1*
On vacations	83.6	84.1	93.6	4.9
For short term work related projects	34.3	27.3	55.3	18.9***
Long term residence rel. to employ.	12.3	14.4	29.8	11.2**

Level of Statistical Significance: * $p <= .05$
** $p <= .01$
*** $p <= .001$

The purpose of this analysis was to determine how students at the three different institutions differed in their responses to the selected questions. Chi-Square analyses were used to determine whether the differences in responses among the institutions were significantly different. Comments regarding the results are contained in sections entitled 1) High School/Col-

lege Background, 2) Interest in Foreign Affairs, 3) Foreign Travel Experience, 4) Contact With Foreign Students, and 5) Anticipated Foreign Travel/Work Experience.

High School/College Background

A statistically different percentage of students (51%) at UNCCH responded that they had taken more than two years of foreign language in high school. Approximately a third of the students at ASU and UNCA indicated that they had more than two years of foreign language in high school. There was no significant difference among the three institutions indicating whether students intended to take foreign language credits beyond those required by their respective institution.

Interest in International Affairs

Generally students at UNCCH followed news events of other countries at a lower rate than their counterparts at ASU or UNCA. The highest percentage of students who followed news events was at UNCA where 91% indicated that they followed news events of other countries. The students at UNCCH indicated that their primary sources of news information were the radio, national news magazines, and the campus newspaper. This may be the result of a major public radio station being located in the Chapel Hill area and a daily campus newspaper that has as a part of its mission the coverage of international news on a regular basis. UNCA and ASU students relied more on local newspapers and television to obtain their source of international news.

International Travel Experience

Approximately a third of the students at ASU and UNCCH indicated that they had traveled in other countries with their families on vacations. A smaller number (24%) of UNCA students indicated similar travel experiences. Also, a significantly smaller number of UNCA students had participated in a high school student exchange program. ASU students indicated participation in other types of foreign travel at a significantly different rate than their counterparts at UNCA or UNCCH.

Contact with International Students

Students at UNCCH indicated they had a significantly higher contact with foreign students. In all instances they had higher contact with foreign students as roommates, in campus organizations, in classes and major related organizations, and other forms of campus contact. Campus demographic statistics indicated that UNCCH has the highest head count of international students of any of the three institutions and possibly the contact with foreign students is indicated by their higher response rates. On the other hand, ASU indicated the lowest contact with foreign students. UNCA students indicated that their highest contact with foreign students was in the classroom or major related organizations. UNCA had the lowest percentage of resident students of the three institutions.

Anticipated International Travel/Work Experience

Students at UNCCH indicated significantly higher plans for future travel to foreign countries for the purpose of graduate study, on vacations, for short-term work related projects or long-term residence related to employment. Generally, ASU students and UNCA students indicated similar response patterns to these same questions and 88% of the respondents on both campuses anticipated travel to foreign countries. In general it might be surprising to note that all three institutions indicated relatively high response rates in the area of future travel of foreign countries.

Conclusions

The responses from the three institutions allow for several general conclusions. About a third of the students responding at each of the institutions had an intention to take foreign language credits beyond those required of their respective institution. It appeared that a strong majority of the students at all institutions have an interest in foreign affairs. Depending upon their campus they gain information about foreign affairs from a variety of different resources which depend upon the location of the campus and the resources available to students. In general, about half of the students at each of the campuses had been involved in some type of foreign travel. There were slight individual campus differences as to how this travel was accomplished. Students at UNCCH had a higher contact rate with foreign students than did students at the other two campuses. This may relate to the fact that there are a larger number of foreign students on that particular campus. Finally, nearly

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90% of all student respondents indicated future interest in foreign travel. In general, the researchers were surprised by such a high percentage.

As a result of this project, further research is indicated and a replication of the study may be valuable on campuses with demographics similar to the three involved in this study. It may also be of interest to compare differences in the sex, class rank, and age of the respondents. By further analyzing the aforementioned characteristics it might be easier to generalize the specific campus student interests in the awareness of international issues.

Summary

Student affairs professionals have a responsibility in assisting their institutions in the recruitment and mainstreaming of international students. Similarly, it is incumbent upon the profession that we both encourage native students to enroll in more foreign languages courses and vocally support their international studies and travel. Where countries once strived for independence it is increasingly apparent that we are interdependent upon each other. As we approach the 21st century, fostering cultural awareness and appreciation is the mandate for the student affairs profession.

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David McIntire
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Wellness: A Student Affairs Mandate for Action

As a prerequisite to fully enjoying a high quality life it is imperative that each person willingly accept responsibility for his or her own health. Wellness is a revolutionary individualized movement toward the full realization of one's unique potential (McIntire, 1985). And most significantly, wellness is a dynamic concept and one that presents student affairs professionals with limitless opportunities for promoting the personal growth of students as well as impacting the quality of their future lives. To provide an effective wellness program professionals must first address three questions. What is wellness? What justification exists for a wellness program on campus? How can the wellness concept be implemented? This article will describe a model for wellness programming based on the experiences at Appalachian State University over the past four years. It is important to keep in mind that this program is only one model and represents what has tended to work at Appalachian State University.

Defining Wellness

The purpose of wellness is to die young . . . as late in life as possible! It is interesting to watch people as they hear the word "wellness" for perhaps the first time. Wellness seems so simple and apparent that people tend to find it embarrassing not to know what the speaker means by the concept. They

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usually, however, "think they know." A few brave souls venture a question such as "What kind of services are included in a wellness program?" Actually, what they hope is that by analyzing the answer to this question they will have a clue as to what is meant by "wellness." Ardell (1983) referred to this reaction in his report "The History and Future of the Wellness Movement" when he stated that any new concept or movement has the potential to arouse suspicion and hostility.

A clear definition of wellness assists individuals in operationalizing the concept and realizing the potential for programming. Most definitions involve the concepts of self-responsibility, dynamic movement toward health, and a balanced lifestyle. At Appalachian State University, wellness is defined as a lifestyle which promotes a person's health and well-being. Wellness involves personal responsibility for lifestyle choices. In addition, wellness involves the "whole person" and represents an integration of body, mind, and spirit. It is a process of continual learning and change that creates good health and a zest for life.

The definition may sound like a lofty ideal for which to strive, but for some people, it may still not answer the question "What is it?" To promote better understanding of the concept and assist in organizing programs it helps to further operationalize the definition. Most programs do this by defining the dimensions of wellness and/or by listing the components of programming. Ardell (1983) listed five commonly employed areas—self-responsibility, nutritional awareness, stress awareness/management, physical fitness, and environmental sensitivity. Appalachian State University elected to utilize the six dimensions of wellness identified by Hettler (1980) in his article "Wellness Promotion on a University Campus." Hettler's dimensions include: intellectual, emotional, physical, social, occupational, and spiritual. By utilizing these six dimensions students are better able to view wellness as a total approach to health in a holistic sense and can recognize the importance of balance and integration between and within the dimensions.

Significant Impact of Wellness

Asking college students what they have eaten or how much sleep they received the previous night frequently reveals some alarming information. The appearance of the "healthy college student" may only be that—an appearance of good health. In actuality, many students are practicing numerous unhealthy behaviors which are classified as risk factors for the major leading causes of death in this country today. As Bill Hettler stated (1980), "there is good evidence that many of the causes of death at age 40 are the result of behaviors established during the adolescent and young adult

years." College students often do not associate their risky behaviors with future illness and death, partly due to the fact that they feel young, vital, and invulnerable to disease. The time lapse between practicing risky behaviors and actually acquiring symptoms of a disease can lull students into a feeling that lifestyle is not associated with disease. The American Council on Science and Health (1980) estimated that approximately 50% of all total deaths were preventable and related to lifestyle. In an unpublished report, the Council also listed three major causes of preventable deaths. Abuse of addictive substances was listed as the leading cause and included smoking, alcohol, and drugs. Secondly, neglect of preventive care was listed and included inadequate control of high blood pressure and failure to detect and treat treatable cancers. And thirdly, the council listed hazardous lifestyles such as reckless driving, not using seatbelts, unsafe sexual practices, poor dietary practices, and lack of adequate exercise and sleep. Students practice behaviors which fall into all three categories.

Furthermore, students find themselves "on their own" often for the first time and are faced with making choices and decisions about food, alcohol, relationships, time management, etc. College students are also very concerned with "how they look" which presents opportunities to spark interest about wellness with topics such as weight management, exercise, and good nutrition. Once involved in wellness programs, students can be assisted in viewing wellness in more holistic ways. This time of searching for their own values and life patterns and establishing a self-image presents student affairs professionals with the "teachable moment" often referred to in the literature on learning theories and behavior change. During this transition time, university professionals can broaden the students' knowledge about health and wellness, increase their awareness of self-responsibility, and provide them with opportunities to practice healthy behaviors. The Surgeon General (1985) summed up the significance of assisting students with developing positive lifestyles in his 1985 report "Healthy People" when he stated that "an individual's health destiny can be greatly shaped by the attitudes, knowledge, and behavior adopted and set during the college years." Student affairs professionals have a responsibility to provide learning experiences to affect this process in positive directions.

Implementing the Concept—An Appalachian Case Study

During the fall of 1983, several individuals at Appalachian State University began thinking about wellness. A series of planning meetings was held with the group growing in numbers and with representation increasing from other campus departments. From the early meetings to the present time, the Offices

of Personnel, Academic Affairs, and Student Affairs have been actively involved in the program development.

In 1984, the Vice Chancellor for Student Affairs appointed a Wellness Task Force to address the issues of need and receptivity as well as to plan for program development. By design, members of the Task Force were chosen to represent all constituencies across campus—students, staff, and faculty. Faculty representation included various disciplines such as health education, psychology, and health care administration in order to ensure the development of a multidisciplinary approach.

The Wellness Task Force met for one year and during that time major accomplishments were achieved. Primarily a sense of ownership and "buying in" was taking place. Members also undertook the process of exploring a definition of wellness which would serve as the foundation for the program. A definition and philosophy statement were developed. This process was essential as people often disagree on a definition of wellness and ways in which the program should be implemented. Other Task Force activities included assessing university and community resources, researching available literature, visiting other campus wellness programs, and assessing campus needs. The Task Force concluded that the university already was rich in resources and had the essential ingredients for a wellness program. The Task Force identified the major need as being the lack of a formal common link among the separate wellness activities already in operation (Hageseth, 1985). Office space was located in the Student Development Center and funding was obtained for a Wellness Coordinator. In November 1985, the Appalachian Wellness Center became a reality with the hiring of the Coordinator and the opening of the office. During these important first few years, the assistance, interest, and support of the university administration was key to the success.

After the Task Force was dissolved a Wellness Advisory Council was established to provide consultation to the Wellness Coordinator; the Council's composition closely resembled that of the initial Task Force and included students, faculty, and staff from various academic disciplines.

Program Goals

The stated goal of the Appalachian Wellness Center has been to promote the health and well-being of the total campus community—students, staff, and faculty. Programming for the total campus has been found to have numerous benefits. First, it has helped to create a positive environment for the development and maintenance of wellness lifestyles. Staff and faculty have been very effective role models, and subsequently their behaviors

greatly affect the adoption of similar behaviors by students. Secondly, as staff and faculty have become involved in the program, they have helped promote the program with students, often referring students to the Center either for individual consultation or for assistance with special class projects. Finally, the university stands to gain the same benefits that industries have experienced in providing wellness activities for their employees—decreased health costs, reduction of risk factors, decreased absenteeism, and increased morale (Bly, Jones, & Richardson, 1986; Harris, 1986; Metcalf, 1986).

The specific program objectives have been specified as:

1) To serve as a learning resource center for students;
2) To promote the development of a positive environment which encourages individual and organizational wellness;
3) To provide a comprehensive wellness program for students, staff, and faculty;
4) To collaborate and consult with campus departments and/or personnel facilitating comprehensive and interdisciplinary programming.

The Wellness Center serves as a learning resource for students in several ways: a) provision of materials (videotapes, pamphlets) to students who are making special class or residence hall presentations, b) assistance to students who are involved in special class projects about health and wellness by maintaining a resource file on select topics, including the most recent research articles in the field, and c) serving as a site for academic internships. This last area has been the most exciting and has grown rapidly. Currently the Center averages 3-4 student interns per semester from areas such as student development, psychology, health education, nursing (from another state campus), and communication arts (this student is involved in marketing the program and developing promotional material). Students work in the Wellness Center as a team, emphasizing the multidisciplinary aspect of wellness.

To ensure that the goal of total campus programming is achieved, the Center operates on a collaborative model and interfaces with many campus departments. The Center's Coordinator works to promote the utilization, coordination, and expansion of pre-existing programs. The Coordinator works closely with Residence Life, Student Health Services, and the Counseling Center as well as other campus departments such as Food Services, Faculty Development, Office of Personnel, and various academic departments. The Center is administered through the Division of Student Affairs; however, funding, support, and cooperation have been obtained across departmental lines.

It became clear early in the development of the wellness program that while the collaborative model worked well at Appalachian, it was hard to define the exact role of the Wellness Center to those persons which the Center intended to serve. Often students, staff, or faculty called to inquire about exercise groups offered by the Wellness Center. However, exercise groups were one of the services already in place when the Center was developed; so individuals were referred to the Intramurals Office or to the Staff/Faculty Fitness Program administered by an academic department. It became essential to delineate how programs were provided on campus and to clearly define the Center's role.

Therefore, program delivery has been delineated into specific categories:

1) *Programs provided directly by the Center.* These programs involved activities that were not currently being offered by other campus departments and tend to round out the wellness program as a comprehensive service.
2) *Programs co-sponsored with other campus departments.* Examples of co-sponsored events included the annual health fair co-sponsored with the Health Education Student Club or the cooking class co-sponsored with the Office of Personnel.
3) *Consultation provided to other departments on wellness programs.* The Wellness Coordinator worked closely with the Intramural Department and the Staff/Faculty Fitness Program to offer educational materials to participants, to advise on ways to expand/promote the programs, and to provide in-service to staff.
4) *Individual consultation available to students, staff, and faculty in addition to providing referrals to other departments.* Students were frequently referred to the Wellness Center from Student Health Services, Intramurals, Counseling Center, and Residence Life. Consultation was provided by the Wellness Coordinator and by the student interns. The interns received special preparation prior to conducting consultations.

In addition, four primary program components have been identified and offered through the Wellness Center. *Health awareness programs* serve to create a positive environment that encourages and supports the adoption of healthy lifestyles. A bimonthly wellness column titled "lifesavers" has been adopted by the campus student newspaper with various students, staff, and faculty contributing to the column. A quarterly newsletter has been published. Wellness bookmarks and health related pamphlets have been distributed throughout the campus. Wellness booths have been set up around

campus to promote awareness of specific topics and/or to conduct screenings. The Wellness Center participates in national events such as the American Cancer Society's Great American Smokeout and the American Heart Association's Food Festival. Bulletin board campaigns have been conducted in the residence halls. Capitalizing on existing campus events, the Wellness Center has had a Wellness Expo during the annual Student Affairs campus road race. Undoubtedly the biggest event of each year has been the annual health fair. The fair, held throughout the Student Union, not only provides considerable screenings and health information, but it has proven to generate considerable enthusiasm and excitement.

Health screening has included a self-scored personal wellness inventory as well as cholesterol, blood pressure and body fat screening. Screenings have been done on a limited basis to date and have been conducted at various campus locations such as the student union, cafeteria, and academic buildings. Community health agencies have provided the cholesterol screening for a nominal fee, and students in exercise physiology have conducted the body fat testing. Procedures for screening and follow-up were developed and approved by the Director of Student Health Services.

Educational programs are a major focus of the Wellness Center's activities. Programs have been provided to student clubs, residence halls, and staff and faculty groups. A primary concern has been to provide in-service to the various student affairs departments about what wellness is and how we envision the wellness program continuing to develop. This has provided us with excellent ideas and suggestions for programs as well as gained support for the program. A major important group that needed information about wellness was the residence hall staff. The Wellness Center has worked to provide in-service training to this group during their initial week-long training and to continue contact with the resident assistants through a monthly wellness newsletter called "Spotlight."

To extend into the residence halls and to improve the effectiveness of the programming efforts for the 4500 resident students, a Peer Education Program called S.W.A.T. (Student Wellness Advisory Team) has been recently initiated. Students were recruited from all disciplines and completed an eighteen-hour training program prior to presenting educational programs in the residence halls. The enthusiasm and excitement surrounding the S.W.A.T initiatives have been stimulating. Programs presented by these trained paraprofessionals have emphasized participant involvement and much fun!

The staff and faculty have been targeted for specific work-site groups on campus. For example, the housekeeping staff has been involved in the design of programs which they feel are needed. Usually a health survey is

conducted initially, followed by blood pressure screening and educational programs. Supervisors work with the Wellness Center Coordinator or the student staff to plan appropriate programs. Campus-wide programs are also offered such as Wellness Breakfast Seminars co-sponsored by Faculty Development and the Back Talk (for lower back problems) series co-sponsored by the Office of Personnel.

Lifestyle change programs have been developed and refined to provide individuals with support for behavior change. On-going groups include a F.I.T. Weight Management group, the American Cancer Society's Fresh Start Stop Smoking program, and the American Heart Association's Culinary Hearts Cooking Course. Community agencies have provided valuable resources, often for little or no cost, and can provide training for individuals who want to facilitate the programs. Students majoring in health education, nutrition, and health psychology have been involved in the planning and implementation of programs. Programs are usually free; however, occasionally a nominal fee is required. Often other campus resources are utilized in implementation of the programs. For example, the Human Performance Laboratory conducts body fat testing on all participants in the weight management group. Campus exercise groups are offered by Intramurals and the Staff/Faculty Fitness Program.

Summary

In summary the Wellness program at Appalachian State University, while certainly still in its infancy, has accomplished significant progress toward the achievement of its goals. The major strengths have been the continued support of university officials, the involvement of students, staff, and faculty, the cooperation between departments, the utilization of students as paraprofessionals, and the involvement of community agencies such as the hospital, health department, and individual physicians.

Currently changes relative to the organizational alignment and the physical location of the Wellness Center are being made. The Wellness Center will physically move from the Student Development Center to the Student Health Center. As soon as the retrofitting of 1600 square feet in the Student Health Center has been completed, expanded offices will provide more room for staff as well as provide better facilities for programming. Future plans also include increasing the numbers served by the Wellness Center.

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SITting on Stress: A Retention Emphasis Through Study Skills

Retention is a positive, proactive commitment by colleges and universities to be responsive to student needs and to improve the quality of student services (Gardiner & Nazari-Robati, 1983). Strategies to improve retention rates are focal concerns within a wide range of student services. Areas which have been targeted for retention emphasis include admissions, academic advising, housing, financial aid, counseling, and academic/learning support services (Fenske, 1980; Gardiner & Nazari-Robati, 1983; Lenning, Sauer, & Beal, 1980).

Within academic/learning support services, study skills courses can provide an optimal setting for implementing curricula which are designed for dual retention purposes, that is, (1) to provide instruction which enhances academic skills for a more meaningful educational experience; and (2) to provide personalized coping skills. This article will discuss stress inoculation training (SIT), a method of assisting students to develop coping skills in dealing with the "wear and tear" of college life.

Clearly, the traditional study skills content emphasizes the area of academic/learning support, an area which positively effects student retention. However, by incorporating SIT into study skills, students may acquire a global coping strategy which is generalizable to numerous aspects of their lives, e.g., extra curricular activities, interpersonal communication, student/

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faculty interactions, financial concerns, and housing issues. These less academic, yet critically significant areas of students' lives are also factors in student retention. Therefore, through SIT, students gain personal coping skills which they can utilize to approach their overall college experience with less anxiety and increased effectiveness. By providing SIT training through a study skills course, an institution can signify care and concern for the total quality of the students' lives.

What is SIT?

Stress Inoculation Training was developed by Donald Meichenbaum (1977) and is analogous to medical inoculation. The same principle, upon which parents vaccinate their children and expose them to minor cases of disease in order to create antibodies, is applicable to SIT (Archer, 1982). Through SIT, a person is exposed to mild doses of stressful situations and rehearses positive responses to these situations. SIT involves developing a personal awareness of physical reactions and negative self-statements during stress; consequently, SIT trains the person how to combat these stressors utilizing muscle relaxation and positive self-statements. Thus, the person becomes inoculated against stress and copes more effectively with increasingly stressful events.

Students face a continuous flow of stressors throughout their college experience. Too often students view these stressors as all-or-nothing demands, i.e., pass/fail, win/lose, success/failure, acceptance/rejection, study/play, flee/fight. They feel overwhelmed by the polarity of these responses. Through stress inoculation, students learn to approach stress less from an either/or perspective. They learn that a stressful situation can be broken down into four coping phases. Within Phase I, students prepare for the stressor. They learn to assess the reality of the situation and develop a plan for coping. In Phase II, students "psyche" themselves up to confront the stress by rehearsing positive self-statements and practicing relaxation techniques. During Phase III, students cope with any overwhelming fears by labeling their feelings and focusing on what action must be taken. Once the stressful encounter has been confronted, students enter Phase IV, where they assess their performance and reinforce their positive coping strategies.

By learning to question how to better deal with stress in each phase, students learn to build a defense system of general coping skills. They ask, "What messes me up under stress?" "What prevents me from coping?" "How does my body react under stress?" "How can I use my body to assist me in handling stress?" "What am I failing to tell myself that would help me in

dealing with stress?" As students practice breaking stress into phases, rehearse coping self-statements, and use relaxation techniques to alter physical reactions to stress, they learn to short circuit stress and deal more effectively and relevantly with stress-evoking situations.

How to Implement SIT

SIT training is divided into three stages: educational, rehearsal, and application (Meichenbaum, 1977). The minimal timeline for training students in SIT is six 50 minute class meetings. However, the time frame is certainly expandable. Two sessions are devoted to each of the training stages explained below.

Educational stage.

In the initial stage, basic instructional data regarding cognitive and physical reactions to stress are presented in lay language. Students are helped to identify their individual responses to stress before, during, and after exposure to a mildly stressful experience. It is helpful if students record their negative self-statements and any physical signs of stress immediately following the stressful experience. Within this stage, students are also introduced to the concept that a stressful situation can be broken into four phases rather than viewing stress as one mass panic.

Educational training activities include creating a mildly stressful situation, conducting a group discussion on everyday sources of student stress, requiring student completion of stress logs, and guiding students through the four phases of SIT. One way to create a mildly stressful situation, which also introduces SIT into the study skills curriculum, is to give students an unannounced pop quiz related to course material. Students, unaware that SIT training is beginning, experience feelings which range from dismay to anger. Following the quiz, the instructor explains that the pop quiz was the opening SIT exercise and requests that students record their self-statements and physical reactions prior, during, and after the quiz. Their self-statements may vary from "I'll never pass!" to "What a jerk to test us today." Their physical reactions will run the gamut of laughter to heaving sighs and knotting stomachs. The pop quiz stressor effectively connects SIT directly to students' in-class experience and provides an awareness of the students' reaction to stress.

Rehearsal stage.

Providing students with practice using a variety of coping skills is the focus of this stage. Students gain experience in breaking their stressors into a series of phases and in repeating coping self-statements. Students learn to associate positive self-statements with specific coping steps in each phase. Training in several relaxation strategies is provided.

Rehearsal activities include soliciting coping statements from students for steps in each phase, presenting students with a stress situation to analyze using SIT, and teaching students different types of relaxation responses. Throughout this stage, students are encouraged to individualize SIT skills and to choose coping strategies which best match their individual needs and style.

A method of assisting students in learning how to break stress into four phases is to assign the students a stressful situation to analyze. A handout is prepared which outlines a typical situation any student might encounter. For example, the situation might be a fellow student, late to class, dashing out the door and locking her/his keys inside. Almost to class, the student realizes the research paper due today, in this same class, is inside the locked room. Students respond to such a situation by breaking the situation into the four phases and writing coping self-statements in each phase. By having students respond to an identical situation the instructor can facilitate a discussion on the significance of individual coping responses.

Application stage.

Students need experience in applying SIT to a variety of situations. Role play exercises are a practical, nonthreatening way to expose students to stress situations. Students may generate their own role play situations or the instructor might provide several situations. Situations which are of interest could include: an incident with a noisy roommate, an encounter with an instructor over a grade, or an upcoming exam which evokes considerable test anxiety. These simulated experiences should provide realistic conditions under which students can apply and reinforce SIT skills prior to their implementing these skills in actual stress situations.

In addition to the role play situations, students begin to utilize the strategies outside of class, reporting their progress on a coping log. To assist students in preparing coping logs, the instructor requests that the students briefly describe a stressful situation in writing. Students are asked to include a plan for coping and to write their coping self-statements and physical reactions in Phase I through Phase IV. Finally, students are asked to record

the outcome of their coping action. Coping logs are to be kept by students for a minimum of one week following the educational and rehearsal stages with the student recording at least five different stressful situations. Follow-up reports in class allow students to discuss their logs and to engage in supportive feedback on the use of SIT.

Discussion

Because SIT training is a break from routine study skills, it can be fun for both instructor and students. It involves the active participation of instructor and students in life beyond note-taking methods and memorization drills. The students enjoy the opportunities to discuss what causes them stress beyond the confines of academics, as well as to practice coping skills in a safe environment. Moreover, students who have had SIT training in study skills courses indicate the training can be generalized to numerous areas of their lives. A review of students' coping logs indicate experiences as varied as the crisis of a friend's diabetic shock, a decision to quit a part-time job to preserve health and grades, a discussion with a professor over an exam date, and a request to a roommate for less frequent overnight stays by his girlfriend. Students' reinforcing self-statements written following the stressful occurrences demonstrate an increased self-confidence and belief in their ability to deal with a range of stressful situations.

Beal and Noel (1980) note that a "caring attitude" on the part of faculty and staff is ranked as the highest positive factor associated with retention. Helping students develop coping skills with which they can more effectively deal and confront the unending stressors of life appears to be a true expression of care. It would seem that employing SIT in a study skills course may be a significant way to communicate care and, thus, aid retention efforts; but, more importantly, SIT aids in the total development of the student.

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8

Deborah H. Haywood
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A Focus on Wellness: LivWELL at UNCW

A university setting provides unique challenges and responsibilities for meeting the health needs of a campus community. The purpose of this paper is to describe how one university addresses those challenges and responsibilities. The University of North Carolina at Wilmington (UNCW) renamed its Student Health Service the Student Health and Wellness Center in 1985. Incorporating the term wellness in the Student Health Service title reflects a commitment by UNCW to introduce and promote this concept in a comprehensive manner for students, faculty and staff. Also in 1985, UNCW expanded staffing in the Office of Health Promotion from a half-time to a full-time Coordinator of Health Promotion responsible for the implementation of a wellness model for the university community.

Mission of the Student Health and Wellness Center

The mission of the Student Health and Wellness Center is to deliver quality health care to students in an environment complemented by the wellness approach. The services include the provision of diagnosis and treatment of general and acute medical problems, and referral to qualified specialists as needed. Patient education is an integral part of each patient/health care provider interaction.

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The Office of Health Promotion is designed to motivate, encourage, and support those who choose to practice a wellness lifestyle. In order to fulfill this mission, support is drawn from strong working relationships with faculty, other student affairs professionals, and students who have volunteered their time. This blending of support makes it possible to educate the campus regarding available opportunities and to provide some practical methods of implementing the wellness model.

The six dimensions of wellness developed at the University of Wisconsin at Steven's Point have served as the programming model for UNCW (Hettler, 1984). These dimensions are identified as the physical, occupational, spiritual, intellectual, emotional, and social/environmental. Self-care and responsibility are incorporated within each dimension in order to achieve optimal health. At UNCW, these principles are combined into a unified, institutional response, capable of providing knowledge, influencing attitudes, and supporting decisions that may be the basis for an increased quality of life at the present time and in the future.

A Healthy Campus

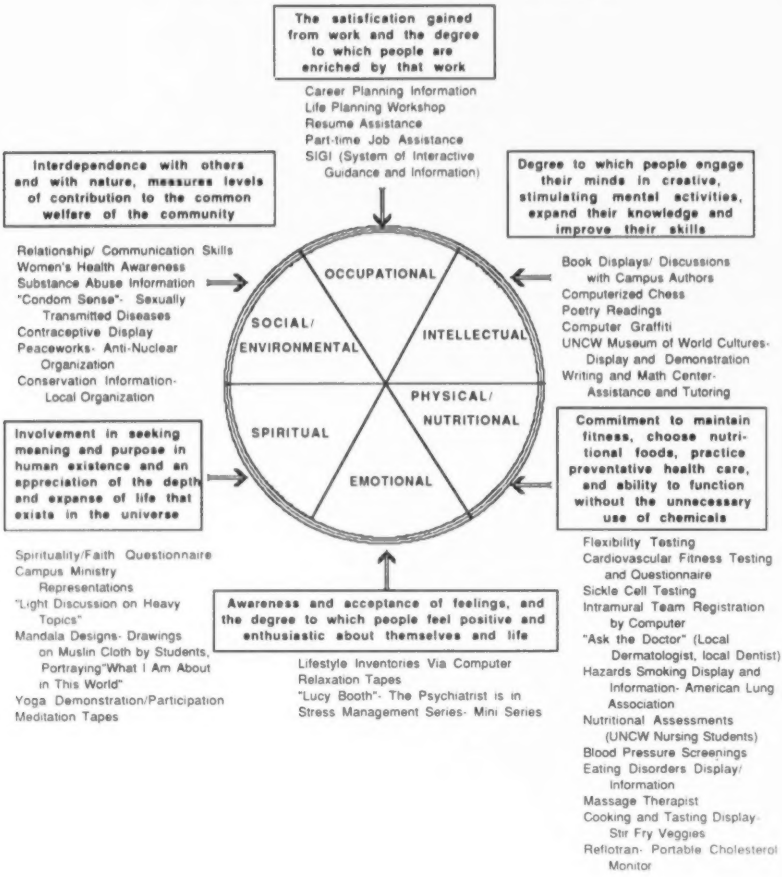
University students are at a developmental stage in which they are relatively open to new ideas and concepts. Health education that each UNCW student receives in the clinic, the classroom, and from the numerous outreach activities is designed to enable students to reduce the many health risks that Americans face in this century. UNCW is committed to supporting national efforts to set and accomplish measurable objectives in disease prevention and health promotion set as a goal for 1990. Some critical areas of risk include family planning, sexually transmitted diseases, smoking, drug and alcohol abuse, physical fitness, stress, and violent behavior (U.S. Surgeon General, 1979).

LivWELL '87

Capitalizing on a variety of efforts to enhance campus awareness of the role of the Student Health and Wellness Center, the Health Promotion Advisory Board originated the LivWELL concept in 1985. LivWELL '87, the third annual health promotion event and only one activity in the total campus wellness program, was attended by over 1,200 people. It was designed to educate and assist the campus community in understanding the six dimensions of wellness in the model.

FIGURE 1

Wellness dimensions and activities for LivWELL 87


The satisfication gained from work and the degree to which people are enriched by that work
Career Planning Information
Life Planning Workshop
Resume Assistance
Part-time Job Assistance
SIGI (System of Interactive Guidance and Information)
Interdependence with others and with nature, measures levels of contribution to the common welfare of the community
Degree to which people engage their minds in creative, stimulating mental activities, expand their knowledge and improve their skills
Relationship/ Communication Skills
Women's Health Awareness
Substance Abuse Information
"Condom Sense"- Sexually Transmitted Diseases
Contraceptive Display
Peaceworks- Anti-Nuclear Organization
Conservation Information- Local Organization
OCCUPATIONAL
SOCIAL/ ENVIRONMENTAL
INTELLECTUAL
PHYSICAL/ NUTRITIONAL
SPIRITUAL
EMOTIONAL
Book Displays/ Discussions with Campus Authors
Computerized Chess
Poetry Readings
Computer Graffiti
UNCW Museum of World Cultures- Display and Demonstration
Writing and Math Center- Assistance and Tutoring
Involvement in seeking meaning and purpose in human existence and an appreciation of the depth and expanse of life that exists in the universe
Commitment to maintain fitness, choose nutritional foods, practice preventative health care, and ability to function without the unnecessary use of chemicals
Spirituality/Faith Questionnaire
Campus Ministry Representations
"Light Discussion on Heavy Topics"
Mandala Designs- Drawings on Muslin Cloth by Students, Portraying"What I Am About in This World"
Yoga Demonstration/Participation
Meditation Tapes
Flexibility Testing
Cardiovascular Fitness Testing and Questionnaire
Sickle Cell Testing
Intramural Team Registration by Computer
"Ask the Doctor" (Local Dermatologist, local Dentist)
Hazards Smoking Display and Information- American Lung Association
Nutritional Assessments (UNCW Nursing Students)
Blood Pressure Screenings
Eating Disorders Display/ Information
Massage Therapist
Cooking and Tasting Display- Stir Fry Veggies
Reflotran- Portable Cholesterol Monitor
Awareness and acceptance of feelings, and the degree to which people feel positive and enthusiastic about themselves and life
Lifestyle Inventories Via Computer
Relaxation Tapes
"Lucy Booth"- The Psychiatrist is in
Stress Management Series- Mini Series

Design and Organization

For LivWELL '87, the selection of a mid-fall semester date and a high traffic location in front of the University Union helped to ensure high visibility and involvement. A circular layout clearly marked each wellness dimension with the center identified as the Wellness Information Tent. This layout provided participants easy access to activity centers. Figure 1 shows wellness dimensions and activities for LivWELL '87.

During LivWELL '87, participants were encouraged to visit all of the wellness dimensions and take part in activities of personal interest. A specially designed ticket was printed for those interested in the prize drawings or

for those who required verification of attendance. This ticket included instructions for participation, registration for prizes, an area for a written evaluation of the event, and validation spaces for student volunteers to mark each dimension visited. After tearing off the portion of the ticket with their evaluation, name, and local address, the remaining portion of the ticket was available as validation for the students' instructor(s).

Extended Activities

Related activities, such as aerobic dance, self-defense, yoga, and CPR demonstrations, were adjacent to the central location for the LivWELL event. Faculty from the School of Nursing supervised students in blood pressure checks and disseminated weight control information and nutritional assessments. The New Hanover County Health Department sponsored a three-minute cholesterol check performed through the use of their reflotran, a computerized, portable testing machine. An "outdoor adventure" ropes course sponsored by the Cape Fear Substance Abuse Center was set up in nearby trees. This event proved to be popular since it enabled students to experience limited risk-taking. A campus jazz ensemble provided background music throughout the day, and healthy refreshments, such as juice, granola trail mix, fruit, and stir fry vegetables, were served. Campus food services provided a conclusion to the day's events when, at the evening meal, resident students were presented with "Decision Point." Students could choose between a well balanced meal or fast food choice, each labeled with identified nutrients.

Publicity and Community Support

Involvement of on- and off-campus organizations and resources complemented the day's activities. To enhance student participation, area merchants donated wellness-related door prizes such as a bicycle, canoe trip, and fitness club memberships. The event was publicized in the student newspaper, posters, flyers, bulletin board displays, and by faculty announcements in the classroom.

Campus Support

Numerous faculty members supported the event by volunteering to coordinate exhibits, requiring student attendance, or offering extra credit for student participation. Faculty involvement and cooperation was an impor-

tant key to making the event successful. For example, Dr. Richard Keeling, Chairman of the American College Health Association's Task Force on AIDS, gave three presentations on AIDS to the campus community. Over 700 attended these presentations; most students in attendance were encouraged to attend by their professors. Program staff have found that reaching out to individual faculty members is a valuable way to involve students in wellness programming.

The Student Government Association provided a subsidy for printing t-shirts. This participation allowed campus leaders to help defray the expenses of LivWELL and promote healthier lifestyles for their peers. Excluding donated prizes and t-shirts, total costs for LivWELL '87 amounted to approximately seven hundred dollars.

Expansion of the Theme

LivWELL '87 increased campus awareness of lifestyle issues and the role of the Student Health and Wellness Center. Wellness activities for 1987-88 continued to build on the LivWELL theme. For example, a four-week series was implemented during the dinner hour in the university cafeteria in which various speakers informally addressed issues such as healthy eating, healthy relationships, and "the healthy drinker." Other examples included the development of LivWELL seminars for residence life students, faculty requests for professional staff to be classroom speakers on various topics, and the establishment of a wellness resource room by the Student Health and Wellness Center and the Student Development Center. Materials and equipment for this resource room included computers and software for individual health risk appraisals and nutritional assessments, a resource file cart with brochures and pamphlets which addressed topics within each wellness dimension, and a library of books and journals.

Regular programs inspired and developed as a result of the LivWELL event included: smoking cessation clinics, volunteer aerobic classes, support groups for weight control and eating disorders, and campus spiritual growth groups sponsored by campus ministries. For example, "Kaleidoscope" was an activity created especially for individuals who simply wanted to meet others who are willing to explore some alternative ways of having fun and relaxing together. Participants, referred informally by professional or student staff, found unique ways to share time together in a positive atmosphere. Some of the activities were an afternoon cookout at a local park, a "chili" cookoff, an afternoon of sailing, and a week long LivWELL sailing adventure in the Bahamas during spring break.

The North Carolina State Personnel Office has initiated an important supportive component to wellness programming called "W.I.S.E." (Wellness Improvement for State Employees). By working cooperatively with the Division of Student Affairs and the Office of Health Promotion, LivWELL and "W.I.S.E." co-sponsored and supported a wider variety of programming. A representative from the UNCW Personnel Office was appointed to the Health Promotion Advisory Board this past year in support of combined efforts to promote healthy lifestyles campus-wide.

Summary

LivWELL '87 inspired staff members representing student services, academia, and other campus personnel to work together to make UNCW a healthier campus. Ongoing evaluations of programs and outreach efforts have provided professional staff with valuable ideas for expansion and for enhancing campus and community support.

Recently, the Office of Health Promotion was relocated to a more visible setting in the University Union. The newly designated space is shared with ALTERNATIVES!, the campus substance abuse prevention and education program. This high traffic, first floor location allows students to experience an informal setting where they can utilize a wide variety of wellness resources and materials such as scales, blood pressure monitors, Self-Care Cold Center, videos, books, and pamphlets.

Essential to the success of UNCW's campus health promotion program is university support of efforts to reach the 1990 national health objectives (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1980). The University's commitment to wellness has been firmly established and the future appears bright for expansion and continued support.

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9

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A Proposal for Enhancing Student Development Through a Human Development Laboratory

Realizing the importance of the interrelationship between a student's social adjustment to the university campus and the student's cognitive development, this article will discuss the importance of providing entering freshmen with an opportunity to experience a human development laboratory. The authors discuss the need for and the process of accomplishing the goals of a laboratory experience and present a proposed model.

Growth and Development of University Students

Research on the growth and development of human beings indicates that the process involves a series of developmental stages that begin with infancy and progress through late adulthood (Havinghurst, 1953; Piaget, 1956; Maslow, 1962; and Miller and Prince, 1976). These developmental theorists contend that these stages of maturation and growth are greatly influenced by societal demands. Thus, there is an altering of current behavior to master new behavior consistent with the age-level and expectations of society. This process of adjustment produces a crisis within the individual. However, the resolution of the crisis serves to propel the individual forward into the next stage of maturity (Blemling & Miltenberger, 1984).

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Of the theories advanced on the maturation, development, and transitional periods that occur during a student's college years (Coons, 1974; Prince, Miller, & Winston, 1977), the seven vectors of development theorized by Chickering in his 1969 study (cited in Blemling & Miltenberger, 1984) seem to succinctly capture the experience of college students and outline the challenges facing them: 1) Achieving Competence, 2) Managing Emotions, 3) Becoming Autonomous, 4) Establishing Identity, 5) Freeing Interpersonal Relationships, 6) Developing Purpose, and 7) Developing Integrity. In a subsequent study in 1974 Chickering (cited in Blemling & Miltenberger, 1984) found that as students enter the transitional period between high school and college the greatest amount of personal change occurs between September and November of the freshman year. These changes occur more quickly in the non-intellectual areas where the difference between high school and college are the greatest.

Universities can structure an environment to enhance academic achievement and personal growth appropriate for the college age student through a planned intervention—that intervention being a human development laboratory for freshmen students. The program that follows focuses on the student living in a residence hall but the benefits of such a laboratory would be similar for the student living off-campus.

A Human Development Laboratory For Freshmen

A Human Development Laboratory may be defined as a planned effort to increase the effectiveness of an individual, a group, or organization by creating a climate where such skills as flexibility, creativity, self-confidence, openness, trust, adaptiveness, and cooperative problem-solving prevail and form the basis for innovativeness and continuous growth. As already indicated in Chickering's 1974 study, the literature reveals that the most effective time for intervention is early in the freshman's first semester. The prototype of such a lab would begin on two consecutive Saturdays from 9:00 a.m. to 4:30 p.m. in September, followed by one Saturday morning each month, October through April. This provides the students with the opportunity to develop a personal and group commitment to the program and to be reinforced through follow-up sessions. The follow-up sessions can also serve as forums for dialogue on campus related issues, and for group or personal issues identified in the College Student Needs Assessment Survey, or those issues which may arise over the course of the year.

Goals Of The Human Development Laboratory

The goals of a human development laboratory for freshmen students are:

1. To facilitate personal growth and development through self understanding and self acceptance;
2. To teach group living skills and a sense of responsibility to the group as members of a community (students living together on a common floor or within a hall where the rooms are within close proximity of one another);
3. To expose the student to the dynamics of interacting positively with peers and ways of making a meaningful contribution to the group;
4. To explore and practice the human relations skills of understanding and accepting the uniqueness of others.
5. To identify and clarify values, attitudes, and feelings toward contemporary issues confronting students today.

Through structured experiential learning activities the students participating in the human development lab will have five kinds of learning available to them: 1) the opportunity to learn about themselves; 2) the opportunity to re-assess and modify deep-seated dispositions and stereotypes toward groups and people; 3) the opportunity to learn concepts regarding human relations as a field of knowledge, as well as the diagnostic and intervention competencies for applying the concepts to concrete human situations; 4) the opportunity to examine their priorities and motivation for college and for their careers; and 5) the opportunity to examine perceived personal and educational needs in such areas as career development, educational planning, intellectual skills development, life skills development, and personal development.

When convened in a laboratory setting, members undergo the process of becoming a group very slowly, thus allowing for the stages of group development to become clearly visible. An early and dramatic stage is represented by efforts of members to resolve the problem of authority as students participate in clarifying direction and goals for the lab experience, and in establishing decision-making procedures. A latter stage of development involves the degree of closeness which students can extend to one another in sharing ideas and feelings. By sharing observations and reporting their feelings, members can gain insight into group interactions and meaning is enriched for the individual and group. The norms of openness, trust, and inquiry become important to the life of the group for then open communication among students and the full use of student resources for problem-solving become established. It is hypothesized that in time students will

come to understand that the activities they experience in the group are all related to the stages of growth and maturation.

Typical Agenda For The Human Development Laboratory

Following is an example of what might occur the first day of the human development lab, followed by suggested areas for succeeding days.

Day 1

Coffee/tea/juice/rolls
Clarification of goals and the day's activities
Personality Assessment: Myers Briggs Type Indicator
Administration of Learning Style Inventory: Dunn & Dunn
Establishing a sense of community and group building through the Dialogue and Inquiry Process—use of specially prepared stem questions designed for freshmen students which are used for group building
Group Task: Completed in small newly formed groups of six and designed to further establish small group cohesiveness
Rumor Activity: To illustrate distortions which may occur in transmission of information from an original source through several individuals to a final destination
Active Listening: To develop skills in active listening and to study barriers to effective listening
Group Problem Solving: To identify differing approaches to assisting others in a task to explore the effects of the various helping approaches on task accomplishment and interpersonal relations.
Positive Departure: To let each student depart on a compliment from each member of his/her small group thus furthering group cohesiveness.

Day 2 And Following

An ice breaker for renewing individual commitment to the program and to the total group would begin the second day, followed by non-verbal interpersonal sharing to foster openness and enhance self-confidence by the sharing of one's self with others and building trust. Sessions on understanding how the University operates would follow. Brainstorming and consensus seeking on possible rules, apart from University policy, that should govern their (students') behavior in the residence hall throughout the school term would come next. Activities that serve to develop personal relationships, to

accelerate the getting-acquainted process in groups, to experience self-disclosure, and to develop authenticity in groups would occur in the afternoon and close out the second day.

The remainder of the half day Saturday sessions would follow a similar agenda using the topics listed below. As the groups mature, the students may want to suggest topics to be included for the following sessions and should be encouraged to do so.

October: Results of Myers Briggs and Learning Style Inventory and implications for each individual student and the group.

November: Management Skills for Campus Life: use of class time; study time; work time; leisure time; and stress.

December: Value Clarification and Small Group Consensus: To compare the results of individual decision-making with the results of group decision-making; and to generate data to discuss decision-making patterns in a group.

January: Small group sectionals designed to address the most dominant concerns identified on the College Student Needs Assessment Survey—Part III not covered in other sessions of the Human Development Laboratory.

February: Sex and Sexuality: birth control; AIDS; peer pressure; homosexuality.

March: Resolving Personal Problems: Family and personal illness; financial difficulties and money management; problems with parents—physical separation yet financial and emotional dependence; difficulties with the opposite sex.

April: Wrap-up and Evaluation.

Evaluation Of Human Development Laboratory Approach

Evaluation of the Human Development Lab approach would be threefold. First there would be subjective evaluations completed by each student at the end of each session. The content of student responses would be analyzed and any recommended changes or modifications made in the ensuing sessions. The second and more comprehensive evaluation would utilize a pre-post survey such as the "College Student Needs Assessment Survey" (CSNAS) designed by The American College Testing Program, with an experimental and a control group. The control group would consist of an equal number of students living on another hall/floor or in another part of the

residence hall and not participating in the Human Development Laboratory. All freshmen that are identified as members of both the experimental and control group would take the pre-College Student Needs Assessment Survey together on a Saturday morning prior to the first meeting of the Human Development Lab. The post-CSNAS would be administered to both the experimental and control group on the Saturday morning following the last session of the Human Development Lab. An analysis of Section III—Educational and Personal Needs would be conducted to determine if the experimental group showed a significant reduction in the areas needing help as opposed to the control group. A similar analysis would be conducted on Section IV—Additional Questions, if the university personnel choose to utilize this section to obtain students perceptions/needs at the local level. There would be a content analysis conducted between the two groups with respect to Section V—Comments and Suggestions.

The third component of the evaluation would attempt to answer the question "Does the Human Development Laboratory have a positive effect from the university's point of view?" This component would be an analysis of the responses to a set of questions completed by the Residence Hall Director and the Assistant Dean of Students. This survey would indicate the number of incidents and conflicts that occurred between students living in the residence hall for both the experimental and control groups. It is assumed that participation in the Human Development Lab would result in a significantly lower number of conflicts between students.

Conclusion

Universities today must consider the education of students from a holistic perspective if the student's maximum potential is to be tapped. Since the human development laboratory has been a significant avenue to accomplish this goal in many other educational situations, it would seem to be a viable approach to use in residence halls. The use of the Human Development Laboratory can make a positive and lasting impact on students during their college education and perhaps for life.

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10

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The Evolution and Impact of Living-Learning Programs at The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

Current opinion among national leaders in education suggests that American colleges and universities should do more toward achieving greater intellectual challenges for undergraduate students. A long-standing approach, popularized during the 1960s and 1970s, is the creation of residential living-learning centers. This study describes the development and outcome of living-learning programs undertaken at The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (UNCCH).

While living-learning programs have been designed in a variety of ways since the inception of the concept, two elements are integral to the living-learning idea. These are a residential setting and the introduction of continuous, academically-related activities into that setting. At UNCCH, living-learning programs were designed to involve students in designated residences and faculty members from selected departments, in a collaborative effort designed to promote co-curricular activities which enhance both the academic and residential experiences. Throughout the year students made substantial contributions to the creation, leadership, maintenance, and evaluation of the programs.

The evolution of the living-learning programs, the nature of the programs, and a comparison of living-learning program participants and non-participants using the University Residence Environment Scale (URES) are dis-

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cussed in this paper. Living-learning students were found to benefit measurably from participation in the program, exhibiting higher scores in areas related to intellectuality, academic achievement, emotional support, and involvement. Implications for continued development and study of this and similar programs are suggested.

Survey of Literature

Literature in student development contains many accounts of co-curricular experiences among college students and the impact of faculty-student interaction outside traditional classroom settings (Chickering, 1969; Riker, 1981).

Astin (1983) reported that student-faculty interaction was increased by students living on campus rather than commuting. He further noted that student persistence (remaining enrolled in the institution) is positively influenced by both living in a residence hall and involvement in the campus environment. These points suggest that involvement in a living-learning program can have a positive effect on students' interaction with faculty members and on student retention. Riker (1981) strongly emphasizes the importance of the residential experience. He describes the shift in higher education from residences having little or no connection with the institution's academic program to those representing "the planned utilization of the residential experience for learning" (Riker, 1981, p. 673). He further asserts that residential learning programs hold great potential for helping colleges and universities to meet the developmental needs of a diverse student population.

Riker (1981) outlines the benefits that accrue when students learn more about themselves and others in the context of a residential setting. These outcomes of learning include the development or strengthening of trust, increased awareness and tolerance of individual differences, enhancement of cooperative interaction, and support of academic learning. As Riker notes, "Much learning of this type naturally occurs whenever students live in groups, but students stand to gain more when residential learning has the advantage of professional assistance" (Riker, 1981, p. 675) since this is likely to strengthen the relationship between residential learning and academic study.

Another positive effect of residence in a living-learning center is the self-perceived enhancement of intellectual growth and attainment of personal educational objectives (Magnarella, 1975, 1979). Magnarella's studies, conducted at the Living-Learning Center at the University of Vermont, also

describe the study participants' belief that living in the Center facilitates being involved in extracurricular activities, holding serious discussions, and discovering new ideas.

The concept of the environment exerting influence on student behaviors and attitudes is reflected in the construction of the University Residence Environment Scale (URES) (Moos, 1979). Selection of items for the original form of the URES was guided by identification of characteristics of a setting which would influence a press toward involvement, academic achievement, innovation, or some other area. In a study using a representative set of 168 living groups from a normative sample, Moos describes the typical profile of intellectually-oriented groups, such as living-learning units, as high on intellectuality, independence, involvement, emotional support, student influence, and innovation.

The creation of living-learning residences calls for careful planning and design. Living-learning houses with academic affiliation at the University of Delaware have been found to be particularly successful when support from three areas is evident: support from the Residence Life Office to commit itself to this form of living structure, support of the students who are selected on the basis of their desire to participate and commit themselves, and support of the designated faculty members (Littlefield & Spencer, 1973).

Faculty support is especially critical to the success of the group. Riker (1981) echoes this emphasis on adequate support and commitment in the design and implementation of living-learning programs.

Living and Learning at UNCCH

The importance of integrating academic and out of classroom experiences is highlighted in *Involvement in Learning* (1984), the report of the Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education, sponsored by the National Institute of Education. Under "Recommendations for Increasing Student Involvement", the group suggests that "every institution of higher education should strive to create learning communities, organized around specific intellectual themes or tasks" (Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education, 1984, p. 33). During the 1986-1987 academic year at UNCCH, the Department of University Housing initiated three living-learning programs which involved more than 100 students and four faculty members. One of the objectives of the Department of University Housing was to augment classroom learning experiences by creating and supporting academically endorsed living-learning projects in designated residence halls.

In the fall of 1985, in the context of the goals and objectives of the Division of Student Affairs, those of the Department of University Housing, and demonstrated interest among a core of students and faculty members, the Department committed a number of spaces for three living-learning programs in Katherine Kennedy Carmichael Hall, a new residence hall which opened in the fall of 1986. Faculty in several disciplines were given permission to begin the recruitment of students. In order for a program to be formally approved by the Department, the following stipulations had to be met: a commitment from a designated number of students; an assigned faculty adviser; and written program goals, objectives, and methods for program implementation.

The programs designed and in effect during the 1986-87 academic year included Romance Languages, German Language, and varied disciplines in pre-professional Health Sciences. The communities house an average of 47 students living in eight-person suites. Activities and member involvement vary by program, based on the specific academic orientation of the group.

Concentrated development in student residences, such as that offered in a living-learning structure, results in improved student reactions to university environments (Centra, 1968). Two important aspects of the living-learning programs at UNCCH are the significant involvement and support from academic departments and the high degree of student responsibility for the development and maintenance of the programs.

Educational programming in residence halls is certainly not limited to living-learning settings; it is included in most settings as a part of the residence life program. However, such programming is often administered to students on the basis of an observed need or developmental focus. Programs on topics such as alcohol abuse or date rape are appropriate and serve an important function for the residents, but they do not engage the students in the way that living-learning programs are designed to involve them.

The living-learning programs at UNCCH require students to make a commitment to a year-long agenda of activities related to an area of academic interest. More than isolated programs or one-time workshops, the living-learning experience is designed to make the academic subject area an integral part of the students' daily activities. The students are involved in every phase of the programs. Students generate the initial program idea. Ideas for new programs originate with the students, as well. Student leadership is instrumental in the development of the formal program proposals. Working to develop these proposals with faculty advisers offer an opportunity for faculty-student interaction on a level not often available in the classroom. Students also work to generate interest in the concept of living-

learning programs in their fellow students, thus increasing their leadership role.

The living-learning programs also offer the students increased opportunities to be creative and to obtain valuable experience in carrying out plans as they work to implement the ideas outlined in their proposals. Students have a significant amount of control over how the program is run, and they gain experience in handling the new roles in the resulting community. Finally, the observations of the students in each program form the basis for the evaluation of the unit's progress toward its goals and for the revision of plans for the future.

Impact on Students

The belief that a healthy living environment supports and contributes to learning was the underlying assumption that guided the establishment of living-learning units at UNCCH. In general, measurable positive outcomes were predicted relative to interpersonal relationships, personal development, and degree of overall involvement in residence hall activities. The hypothesis was that outcomes along these dimensions would generally be higher in the living-learning programs. The specific assumption was that students in the living-learning programs would experience enhanced outcomes in interpersonal relationships, personal development, and degree of overall involvement and commitment as measured by the University Residence Hall Environment Scale (URES) Form R. Two specific hypotheses were investigated. First, the URES mean scores on several subscale items for students in living-learning programs at UNCCH are significantly different from the mean scores for students from a national normative sample. Second, the URES mean scores on some subscales for students in living-learning programs at UNCCH are significantly different from students at UNCCH who were not in living-learning programs. Specifically, UNCCH living-learning students were predicted to have higher mean scores on the subscales that measure academic achievement, emotional support, intellectuality, and involvement than either comparison group.

Description of the Instrument

The URES assesses the social climates of university student residential groups, such as residence halls, fraternities, and sororities. The instrument measures directional influences on three dimensions; interpersonal relationships, personal growth, and organizational development. The details of the

development of the URES are given in Gerst and Moos (1972). The 100-item Form R is grouped into 10 subscales. Each item describes characteristics of an environment that influence aspects of that environment such as orientation toward academic achievement (see Gerst and Moos (1972), for more details). Murray (1938) describes such directional influences as environmental "press." For example, press toward academic achievement would be inferred from answers in the scored direction on URES Form R scale items such as "People around here tend to study long hours at a stretch," and "People here work hard to get top grades." A press toward intellectuality would be inferred from answers in the scored direction on items such as "People in the house will not have a great deal of intellectual curiosity," or "Discussions will generally be quite intellectual" (see the appendix for a brief description of the URES subscales).

Method

In order to test the validity of these assumptions, selected students were asked to complete the University Residence Environment Scale Form R. Two

Table 1

Selected Characteristics of Study Participants

Characteristics	*n*
Class Standing	70
Freshman	15
Sophomore	22
Junior	14
Senior	17
Did not respond	2
Gender	70
Female	47
Male	20
Did not respond	3
Program	70
Living-Learning	40
French/Spanish	12
German	6
Health Related	22
Traditional (no program)	28
Did not respond	2

weeks prior to the end of the semester, the test was administered to 204 students who resided in a newly constructed coeducational residence hall where three living-learning programs had been instituted. The test items were printed in a reusable booklet designed to be used with a separate answer sheet. The instrument was distributed to each of the 110 students participating in the three separate living-learning programs and to each of the 94 students who lived in one of several other separate but architecturally identical sections of the same residence hall. Questionnaires were returned from 70 students, 40 students who lived in the living-learning houses and 28 from the traditional program students (students not in living-learning programs). Two students did not indicate where they lived and were not included in the analyses. A score was obtained for each subscale by using a template to count the number of items on the subscale that were answered in the scored direction. The data were analyzed on a personal computer using PC SAS[tm]. Table 1 provides a description of study participants.

Results

In general, the data confirmed the hypotheses. The means for the groups were compared using a *t* test appropriate for testing hypotheses about the

Table 2

Mean URES Form R Subscales for Normative Samples and UNCCH Living-Learning Students

	Normative Student Samples *n*=168 groups		Living-Learning Students UNCCH *n*=40	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement	5.97	1.88	7.78	2.26***
Emotional Support	6.32	1.27	8.00	2.24***
Independence	5.27	1.07	3.45	2.18***
Trad. Social Orientation	3.86	1.49	4.35	2.29
Competition	2.71	0.74	2.95	2.04
Academic Achievement	4.99	1.21	7.22	1.25***
Intellectuality	4.46	0.99	6.72	1.96***
Order and Organization	4.69	1.72	7.95	2.36
Student Influence	5.29	1.57	5.87	1.68
Innovation	5.42	1.10	5.45	2.07**

**$p < .05$.
***$p < .001$.

difference between means. As predicted, means for subscales measuring academic achievement, emotional support, intellectuality, and involvement were significantly different from and higher than those of students in the normative sample for the same subscales. Table 2 compares the means and standard deviations and describes the associated statistical significance level for the normative student sample and UNCCH living-learning sample. In addition, other significant differences were found. Students in the living-learning programs indicated that they perceived more order and organization and innovation in their groups. Students at UNCCH in living-learning programs scored their environment well below students in the normative sample on the subscale independence which measures the extent to which the pressure to conform exists in the group. Scores on subscales for the living-learning environment representing adherence to traditional social orientation, competition, and influence were not statistically different from the normative sample.

A similar patttern of results exists in a comparison of traditional students' (students not in the living-learning programs) perceptions of their environment to the perceptions of living-learning students. Table 3 shows a comparison of the mean scores of living-learning students and traditional students at

Table 3

Mean URES Form R Subscales for UNCCH Traditional and UNCCH Living-Learning Students

	Traditional n=28		Living-Learning n=40	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Involvement	5.04	2.91	7.78	2.26***
Emotional Support	5.50	2.70	8.00	2.24***
Independence	4.04	2.24	3.45	2.18
Trad. Social Orientation	5.57	2.28	4.35	2.29*
Competition	2.93	1.76	2.95	2.04
Academic Achievement	6.04	2.15	7.22	1.25**
Intellectuality	3.61	0.99	6.72	1.96***
Order and Organization	6.39	2.17	7.95	2.36**
Student Influence	4.07	1.96	5.87	1.68***
Innovation	3.89	1.97	5.45	2.07**

*$p < .05$.
**$p < .01$.
***$p < .001$.

UNCCH. As predicted, the observed means for living-learning students are significantly different from and higher than those of the traditional students on subscales measuring academic achievement, emotional support, intellectuality, and involvement. The means were also higher and statistically significant on the subscale measuring innovation. Traditional students perceived their environment as higher in traditional social orientation. The largest difference was between the mean scores for the two groups on Intellectuality. Living-learning students reported a significantly greater emphasis on intellectual activities ($M = 6.72$) than did traditional students ($M = 3.61$), t (-5.65), $p < .001$. There was no difference between the scores for the two groups on competition or independence.

Implications

In 1985 the Office of Institutional Research at UNCCH published a report describing the quality of undergraduate involvement at UNCCH. The research effort was based on the premise that quality and quantity of student effort in educational endeavors are related to learning and development. The results of that study indicated that supportive environments and relationships with other students, faculty, and staff combined with student involvement and effort may be predictive of student learning and development. The evidence described in this study suggests that there may be important advantages in the supportive social climates of students participating in living-learning programs at UNCCH and, perhaps, for students in general. As a result of the activities and programs that exist in carefully designed, university-supported, living-learning programs, students find that their residence hall environments are more academically oriented, more supportive of creativity, and in particular more intellectually stimulating than might be expected in the absence of such programs. Students in living-learning programs appear more involved in their educational activities, a relationship that is predictive of educational outcomes. Regardless of the type of residential community, the pressures to conform to expected social behaviors are high in the UNCCH student sample. The anecdotal evidence derived from information shared with other colleagues indicates that this may be true of current college students in general. Professionals in student affairs should examine the developmental aspects of pressure on students to conform and on the reduced tolerance of social diversity.

These results should prove useful in designing and evaluating residence hall programming activities. For UNCCH, this study provides relevant information which may be applied to development of leadership training and

community development in our residence halls. Insights gleaned here may also be applied to marketing living-learning programs and recruitment of students for participation.

In the 1987-88 academic year, the Department of University Housing will add an intercultural living-learning program called UNITAS. The data suggest that particular attention should be paid to the areas of students' personal development and community involvement in the development and evaluation of the new and continuing programs. This new program and all continuing programs will be judged as successful, in part, to the degree that similar patterns of student involvement, emotional support, intellectuality, and academic achievement emerge.

A description of the results of this study would not be complete without a discussion of possible limitations to the study. One potential limitation relates to the self-selection of students in the living-learning group. Since these students chose to enter the living-learning programs, the generalizability of these findings is limited. However, the reader should note that the dependent variables in the study are students' subjective perceptions of their environment. The URES purports to measure social climate as described by members of the environment under study. This study does not attempt to measure changes in individual students as a result of participation in a living-learning program.

Further study warrants measuring changes in student grade point averages as an additional indicator of the true nature of the impact of a living-learning experience on student academic achievement. A research design that includes a pretest and posttest of URES subscales would help to determine the degree to which pre-existing characteristics may contribute to differences between living-learning students and traditional program students. These suggestions are being implemented in current assessments of our residential environments at UNCCH and in residence halls where living-learning programs do not exist.

The observations and methodology described here may prove useful to other institutions or individuals planning or debating the development of living-learning programs. The information may also be useful in planning similar assessments of residence hall environments in which programmatic changes have been implemented or are being considered. Two final conclusions appear in order. First, there is substantive positive impact on undergraduate student development to be derived from carefully designed, developmentally oriented residential programs. Secondly, the residential setting can be a valuable tool both to support and *contribute* to the academic mission of the university.

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Appendix

Brief Descriptions of The University Residence Environment Form R Subscales

Relationship Dimension

Involvement

Degree of commitment to the house and residents; amount of interaction and feeling of friendship in the house.

Emotional Support

Extent of manifest concern for others in the house; efforts to give aid with academic and personal problems; emphasis on open, honest communication.

Personal Growth or Development Dimension

Independence

Diversity of behaviors allowed without social sanctions, versus socially proper and conformist behavior.

Traditional Social Orientation

Stress on dating, going to parties, and other "traditional" heterosexual interactions.

Competition

The degree to which a wide variety of activities such as grades, dating, etc., are cast into a competitive framework.

Academic Achievement

Extent to which strictly classroom and academic accomplishments and concerns are prominent in the house.

Intellectuality

Emphasis on cultural, artistic and other scholarly intellectual activities in the house, as distinguished from strictly classroom achievements.

Group Maintenance and Change Dimension

Order and Organization

Amount of formal structure or organization (e.g., rules, schedules, following established procedures, etc.), neatness.

Student Influence

Extent to which students perceive they (students, not staff or administration) control the running of the house; formulate and enforce the rules, control use of money, selection of staff, food, roommates, policies, etc.

Innovation

Organizational and individual spontaneity of behaviors and ideas; number and variety of activities; new activities.

11

Marcia Lou Petty

A Profile of College Student Leaders Relating Personality Types, Learning Styles, and Leadership Approaches

The research literature on cognitive learning style over the last 20 years indicates an increasing awareness of educators and lay persons concerning individual learning styles and information processing strategies. Cognitive/learning style research has been undertaken with personality variables, and separately with leadership variables; but there has been no single research study combining all three variables.

Society places great emphasis upon leadership and yet neglects the teaching of both theory and application. The college experience provides an excellent opportunity for leadership development (Harville, 1969; Newton, 1975). Several investigations have shown that participation in collegiate activities was predictive of adult leadership (Harville, 1969).

Concomitant with the need to teach leadership to students is the need to maximize our students as a volunteer force. Increasing monetary constraints in higher education have forced student affairs professionals to do more with less. Leadership development for student leaders then becomes an essential management tool (Becker and Elderedge, 1979).

So that optimal leadership development training can take place, it would benefit the student affairs professional to understand personal characteristics of student leaders. Knowledge regarding student leaders' learning styles provides insight into their learning/decision making strategies. This information helps to lessen frustration between the student leader and advisor. Both

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can cater to preferred learning strategies, communicate and complement strengths without sacrificing individuality (Christiano and Robinson, 1982; Lapray, 1981; McKenney and Keen, 1974). Similarly, information regarding personality type and approach to leadership serves to increase the advisor's and students' knowledge base.

The study sought to determine whether an identifiable profile exists to describe college student leaders. The three variables used in the description were personality type, learning style, and leadership approach. Objectives of the study were to (a) ascertain the personality types, learning styles, and leadership approaches of college student leaders being studied; (b) determine whether an identifiable profile for college student leaders exists using personality type, learning style, and leadership approach for the following variables: (1) sex; (2) activity; and (3) college of major; and (c) provide recommendations for the development of leadership training programs. Significant associations among these variables would provide valuable information concerning student leaders. Results could suggest directions for leadership development programming to include educating leaders with their individuality in mind.

Method

Sample

The participants in this study consisted of 100 elected student leaders from The Florida State University in Tallahassee, Florida (59% females and 41% males) stratified into five activities or organizations—Student Government, Greeks, Inter-Residence Hall Council, Recreation Council, and others. The category "other" include diverse groups, e.g., the theatre guild, business association. Of the entire group, 86% were white, 14% non-white. There were 13% Freshmen, 21% Sophomores, 33% Juniors, 24% Seniors, and 9% Graduates. Ninety-six percent of the student leaders had full time status as students.

Instruments

Data for this study were obtained through the use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, Kolb's Learning Style Inventory, and Hersey and Blanchard's LEAD-SELF test.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), Form G, was chosen to assess the personality types of college student leaders in the study. The MBTI was selected because it was specifically designed to implement Jung's theory of personality types. Investigators have conducted extensive reviews of intercorrelations, reliability, and validity studies conducted with the MBTI. Results clearly indicate that the MBTI measures what it intends to and can be used as a reliable self report inventory (Carlyn, 1977; Mendelsohn, 1965; Strickler & Ross, 1963).

There are 16 possible type combinations assessed by the MBTI. The combinations are a result of MBTI preference strengths from the following: Extrovert, Introvert, Sensing, Intuitive, Thinking, Feeling, Judgmental, Perceptive.

Kolb's Learning Style Inventory

Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI), based on his theory of experiential learning, is designed to measure both the strengths and weaknesses of the learner.

Ferrell (1983) conducted a factor analysis of four learning style instruments and found that the LSI was the only instrument for which a match between factors and learning style existed. Ferrell's investigation supported Kolb's conceptualization of learning style.

To obtain a norm of the mean population, Kolb administered the LSI to 800 managers and graduate students in management. Identified most often were the four dominant learning styles (Converger, Diverger, Assimilator, Accommodator). There are no right and wrong answers and the inventory is self-scoring.

Hersey and Blanchard's Lead-Self

The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrument was designed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). The variation of that instrument, LEAD-SELF, was created as a self-assessment of leader behavior in relation to leadership situations.

Several empirical validity and reliability studies have been conducted. These studies support LEAD-SELF as an empirically sound instrument. The LEAD-SELF was standardized in a study of 264 managers. In several administrations of the test over a period of time, scores remained consistent. Further information regarding results can be found in the LEAD-SELF manual which is obtainable through the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California.

Procedures

Elected student leaders were invited to participate in a leadership development session. Students were told that their involvement in the study would help them identify their strengths and weaknesses as both a leader and learner.

On a pre-scheduled date and time five leadership sessions, in which the three instruments were administered, were conducted. All of the instruments were scored by student personnel staff as the student leaders finished and were double-checked by the investigator for accuracy. In the leadership sessions, both individual and group analyses were provided regarding the three instruments, even though such analysis was not a direct part of this study.

Responses to the three instruments from the college student leaders were coded and entered into the Florida State University computer for analysis. The *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975) was used to analyze the data. The two subprograms of SPSS which were employed were FREQUENCY (descriptive data) and CROSSTABS (categorical data). Specifically, the following statistics were applied: frequency distributions were calculated on the Myers-Briggs sixteen types, Myers-Briggs preference strengths, LEAD-SELF scores, and prevalent learning style types. The chi square statistic was calculated on the Myers-Briggs sixteen types, Myers-Briggs preference strengths, LEAD-SELF, and prevalent learning style types. Means and standard deviations were calculated on LEAD-SELF and learning style inventory scores. The mean was calculated on Myers-Briggs preference scores. To determine preference strength, t-tests and probabilities were calculated to LEAD-SELF and learning style scores.

Results

Broad results of this study identify the following profile for this sample of college student leaders. Beginning with the Myers-Briggs types, college student leaders (22%) at the Florida State University tend to be extroverted, sensing, thinking, and judgmental (ESTJ). Table 1 shows percentages for the total group of college student leaders regarding the Myers-Briggs sixteen types. Also presented is the significance level of chi square.

According to the Myers-Briggs (1962) manual, individuals identified as ESTJ are "practical, realistic, matter of fact, with a natural head for business . . . good at organizing and running school activities, but sometimes rub people the wrong way by ignoring their feelings and viewpoints" (p. 70). The

Table 1

Myers-Briggs Sixteen Types for the Total Group of College Student Leaders

Type	%
INTJ	6
INTF	2
INFJ	2
INFP	0
ISFJ	2
ISFP	1
ISTJ	6
ISTP	5
ENTP	5
ENTJ	12
ENFP	14
ENFJ	9
ESFP	3
ESFJ	8
ESTP	3
ESTJ	22

Note: $x^2(15, N = 100) = 79.25\ p < .05$

extroverted/thinking types scoring highly on the judgmental scale may overlook the importance of perception. A leader of this type may tend to have poor listening skills and be narrow-minded. Such a leader needs to take the time to understand group members; hasty judgments are apt to be made and members may feel unappreciated.

College student leaders (32%) in this study were identified as having the accommodator learning style; however, the remaining three learning styles were somewhat evenly distributed. Table 2 shows the percentages for the total group of college student leaders regarding prevalent types of learning styles. Also presented are the mean and standard deviations of the inventory scores and the significance level of chi square.

According to Kolb (1974) the Accommodator's "greatest strength lies in doing things, in carrying out plans and experiments and involving himself in new experiences. He tends to solve problems in an intuitive trial and error manner, is at ease with people but is sometimes seen as impatient and pushy. His educational background is often technical or practical fields such as business" (p. 6). This is congruent with the Myers-Briggs ESTJ findings.

Table 2

Prevalent Types of Learning Styles and Inventory Scores for the Total Sample of College Student Leaders

Learning Styles	N	%
Accommodator	32	32
Converger	24	24
Diverger	28	28
Assimilator	16	16
Total N = 100		
Inventory Scores:	X	S.D.
CE	15.3	3.45
RO	13.3	3.54
AC	16.5	3.40
AE	15.9	3.05
AC-CE	1.20	6.26
AE-RO	2.60	5.94

Note: x^2 (3,N = 100) = 5.60 $p > .05$

CE = Concrete Experience
RO = Reflective Observation
AC = Abstract Conceptualization
AE = Active Experimentation

Table 3

LEAD-SELF Instrument Scores for Total Sample of College Student Leaders

	N	%	X	S.D.
HT/LR	10	10	1.79	1.37
HT/HR	63	63	5.94	1.87
HR/LT	27	27	3.95	2.02
LR/LT	0	0	.300	.577
Total	100			

Note: x^2 (3, N = 100) = 91.92 $p < .05$
HT/LR = High Task/Low Relationship
HT/HT = High Task/High Relationship
HR/LT = High Relationship/Low Task
LR/LT = Low Relationship/Low Task

College student leaders who participated in this study were identified most frequently as having an Abstract Conceptualization score on the learning style inventory. Individuals scoring in the Abstract Conceptualization learning mode tend to be "oriented more to things and symbols than to people. They learn best in authority-directed, impersonal learning situations that emphasize theory and systematic analysis. They are frustrated by and benefit little from unstructured discovery learning approaches, such as exercises and simulations" (Kolb, 1976, p. 4).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) identified High Task/High Relationship and High Relationship/Low Task as the leadership styles most frequently reported in the United States among those in higher educational levels. Similarly, college student leaders in this study perceived themselves as having primarily a High Task/High Relationship approach to leadership (63%); the secondary approach was the High Relationship/Low Task style. Table 3 shows the percentages for the LEAD-SELF instrument scores regarding the total sample of college student leaders. Hersey and Blanchard described the High Task/High Relationship style of leader as one who explains decisions to members with little interaction or sharing of ideas. The High Relationship/Low Task approach to leadership facilitates leader-member relations. Leaders of both styles have difficulty delegating work load and responsibility, and have problems with discipline. Females in this study had mean scores indicating a high relationship orientation, while males had mean scores indicating a high task orientation. This finding is consistent with Hersey and Blanchard's research.

Discussion

As a student affairs professional, this researcher has experienced the frustration of advising diverse groups of college student leaders. A lack of information about these students often hindered the development of their leadership potential. An underlying reason for conducting this research project was to develop a systematic means for assessing college student leader characteristics, cataloging this information, and considering recommendations for leadership training that would be of benefit to both student leaders and advisors.

Often college student leaders who participated in this study commented that knowledge concerning their personality type, learning style, and leadership approach was a new concept for them. They appeared eager to learn and eager to apply what they learned to their individual organizations. Many of the student leaders expressed the wish that their entire organization could be exposed to this leadership session.

In regard to the data concerning college student leaders' Myers-Briggs types, leadership sessions should be developed to compensate for the lack of perception and feeling preferences. The following are examples of leadership sessions:

1. Listening Skills Development
2. Processes of Decision-making
3. Leader/Member Relationships
4. Giving/Receiving Constructive Criticism
5. Value Clarification

These topics included in leadership sessions would benefit the college student leaders who participated in this study.

The crucial importance for identifying prevalent types of learning styles lies in revealing both the strengths and weaknesses of the individual learner. The assessment of learning styles regarding college student leaders provides student affairs professionals with additional information relating to the learning process. This information, in turn, can identify potential leadership development strategies. It is clear that assessment of learning styles and learning modes provides vital information regarding program format as well as program content for leadership sessions.

With regard to the learning style inventory, student affairs professionals should take into account the sex of the student leader. In this study females were identified as having high Concrete Experience and Active Experimentation scores; while males had higher Abstract Conceptualization and Reflective Observation scores. This finding is consistent with Kolb's research (1976, p. 24). This suggests that leadership programs should fully integrate methods for all four learning styles so that learning is indeed taking place.

Time is a crucial factor that advisors face when working with student leaders. Often in the beginning of the school year college student leaders' enthusiasm is at a peak. The assessment of leaders' characteristics at this time would appear to be beneficial, providing advisors with information about leaders' strengths and limitations and enabling them to prepare leadership sessions which cater to diverse needs.

Mutual understanding of individual differences regarding personality type, learning style, and leadership approach for advisors, student leaders, and group members should bring about a sensitivity to individual and group interaction. Increased knowledge about personality, learning style, and leadership approach can lay a base for student leaders and advisors to appreciate and accept differences among themselves and others. Through education, acknowledged differences can be used in positive ways which can minimize personality conflicts and leader/member unfulfilled expectations.

Student Affairs professionals responsible for student development and/or student activities and organizations have opportunities to educate students concerning leadership. Not only can they influence leadership development but they can also enhance personal development and learning strategies.

This study provides student affairs professionals with assessment techniques that enable the identification of profiles for college student leaders. The information generated provides a case for developing comprehensive leadership training sessions.

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12

Bruce Harshbarger

A Framework for Student Leadership Development Programs

In the past several years, student affairs professionals who coordinate leadership development programs for students have probably spent increasing amounts of time responding to requests for information. The concept of student leadership training is booming, as evidenced by special issues of professional association magazines (*Liberal Education*, 1987), feature articles in the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (Watkins, 1986), and conferences on leadership education (Clark, 1987). A recent research project found leadership education in place at 661 American institutions of higher education (Freeman, Gregory, & Clark, 1986). It is being embraced by colleges and universities to the extent that the provision of such programs is now frequently considered an institutional expectation rather than an innovation. However, much of the literature on leadership development is relatively general and non-specific in regard to procedure, leaving many individuals charged with the creation of new programs to initiate mailings and telephone interviews to gather ideas.

At a recent national conference on leadership education, three examples of existing campus programs were presented as models for program design. Among these, one used an "assessment center" method to document students' interpersonal skills (Beardsley, 1987). Another engaged students in simulation exercises to unite academic learning with skill development (Preston, 1987). A third focused on ethical leadership as an attempt to

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balance "the habit of individuality" and "the habit of community" (Shapiro, 1987).

This paper presents a framework which incorporates elements of each of these emphases to help students establish a sense of identity as leaders. It was used in 1984 to create the Elliott Fellows Program, a twelve-week leadership development fellowship for selected first-semester freshmen at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (UNCG). The framework is influenced by Chickering's (1969) concept of "vectors" of student development. In its approach to leadership training, it defines three program stages and within each, reflects the sequencing of the developmental tasks proposed by Chickering. This model has been shared with a number of professionals seeking to initiate leadership programs on other campuses, and several have found it useful in conceptualizing the design and content of their efforts. The Elliott Fellows Program, as the practical application of the framework, is described in this paper, and the framework itself is provided as a potential starting point for individuals who wish to develop such programs.

The Elliott Fellows Program

The Elliott Fellows Program is a semester-long leadership seminar for twenty student participants selected through an application and interview process. Freshmen are chosen on the basis of their backgrounds in leadership activities, their interest in campus co-curricular involvement, and their enthusiasm for accepting the responsibilities of campus leadership. At the conclusion of the program, participants receive a $100 fellowship grant. The content of the program is described in greater detail in the section of this paper entitled "A Framework." Now completing its fourth year, the Elliott Fellows Program has been a successful means of identifying and developing students with outstanding leadership potential, and facilitating their entry to campus involvements. Student evaluations of the program's value, both immediate and long-term, have been extremely positive. The Elliott Fellows Program was recently featured in an issue of *Liberal Education* (1987, p. 32) which profiled six leadership development programs from across the nation.

Limitations

Spitzberg (1986) cited three categories of campus-based leadership programs: (1) the co-curricular leadership development program arising out of a student development office or direct student initiative; (2) the academic course that draws mainly on social psychological and management studies

literatures; and (3) the liberal arts academic course that places the study of leadership in the context of both the humanities and the social sciences. "All campus programs," said Spitzberg, "in reality, include elements of all three approaches but emphasize one or the other" (p. 5).

The Elliott Fellows Program is representative of the first of Spitzberg's categories. The program is co-curricular, and reflects as a primary concern, the exercise of leadership in student organizations and campus life. As such, its design is not necessarily representative of all possible program designs. Freeman, Gregory, and Clark's (1986) survey determined that only 27 percent of the leadership programs reported by colleges and universities were sponsored by a student affairs division.

However, the model upon which the Elliott Fellows Program is based is general in nature, and may be adapted to a variety of training programs.

Defining the Task

Leadership is a phenomenon which occurs in groups, and the notion of leadership outside the context of a group has little meaning. The enhancement of leadership development, therefore, is essentially an outcome of group activity, separate from the acquisition of related skills and knowledge. Much of the impact of leadership training results from the interplay of personalities and backgrounds among the individuals who participate in the training program.

While the classroom provides a useful setting for many leadership development efforts, it also presents certain problems. The ultimate authority for the class often rests not with the students but with the professor. Motivation and rewards for many students can be, to a large extent, artificial (grades and credit hours). Perhaps most critically, evaluation in the classroom is often based upon individual performance, undercutting the proposition that leadership is a group phenomenon.

For colleges and universities to engage in an effort to enhance the *practice* of student leadership, it is helpful to work within group settings which are free of many constricting regulations. However, this requires that individuals conducting the program be able to generate student commitment to program participation without the benefit of direct positional authority.

To encourage this commitment, it is important to balance the teaching of skills with immediate applications, and the presentation of concepts aimed at longer-range student growth and development. It is useful to separate skill-based competencies such as public speaking, the organization of meetings, and the learning of theoretical models, from the development of

personal values regarding the phenomenon of leadership. The former is behavioral, the latter, largely attitudinal. Both are necessary. To lack the skills is to lack the preparation and self-confidence to exercise personal values. Yet to learn behavioral skills applicable to leadership without initiating the development of values and ethics regarding their use, is at best fruitless and at worst, dangerous.

Teaching skills can be done in a relatively straightforward manner, and within the area of group process, skill-based training can be made especially enjoyable and meaningful through such activities as role playing and video-taped simulations. But what about the value-laden aspects of leadership? Teaching these is a far more uncertain goal. Discussion groups may be organized to probe leadership as an abstract concept, to discuss why it is necessary, when it is used, and for what purpose. However, there is no guarantee that the results of such an exercise constitute the development of leadership.

What student development specialists can do is to provide resources for students to gain the skills necessary to conceptualize and better understand the processes of change and decision-making. They can explode some myths serving as blocks to the effective exercise of leadership, such as the notion that leaders are necessarily the most charismatic, attractive, and best-liked members of a group, or the notion that one gender is better equipped for the duties of leadership than another. Most importantly, they can challenge students to verbalize their own sense of values, and to try out new and different ideas in order to assess their merits.

The actual function of leadership is an interaction between what an individual knows, is capable of doing, and feels motivated to do within a situational context. If what is known about the process of leadership is taught; if students are assisted in building related skills, encouraged to establish personal identities as leaders, and challenged to seriously consider the values and ethics associated with the process; then they are being provided tools with which they can make themselves into more effective leaders.

A Framework

In designing a program outline, the Elliott Fellows Program has adopted a three-stage framework with a skills and a values component for each stage. Within the program's goals of teaching skills and values at each stage is the process of aiding participants to establish a sense of self-identity, a sense of identity as a group member, and a sense of identity as a participant in the

particular organization or setting which provides the context for leadership. These steps in the framework reflect Chickering's (1969) theory of "vectors" of student development.

Table 1

Framework for a Leadership Program (based on the Elliott Fellows Program)

	Skills		Values
Stage I: Understanding self	S_I	i	V_I
Stage II: Understanding groups	S_{II}	i	V_{II}
Stage III: Understanding the context	S_{III}	i	V_{III}

i = establishment of personal identity at each stage

Chickering (1969) proposed that the central task of college students is the "establishment of identity." He specified three additional tasks upon which the establishment of identity depends: the development of competence, the management of emotions, and the development of autonomy; and three more upon which the establishment of identity fosters change: the freeing of interpersonal relationships, the clarification of purpose, and the development of integrity. These tasks he termed "vectors" since the term connotes both magnitude and direction.

According to the "seven vectors" model, the skills of competence, emotional control, and autonomy are antecedents to the establishment of identity, and the values necessary for freedom in relationships, clarity of purpose, and integrity are its outcomes. Chickering suggests that once we have the skills to contend with an environment, we can establish an identity within the context of that environment, then determine the roles in which the identity will be manifested (Widick, Knefelkamp, and Parker, 1981).

In the framework for a leadership development program suggested in this paper, Chickering's implied order of skills, identity, and then values underlies the activities at each stage. While it is not likely that participants will fully achieve capability in relevant skills, establishment of an identity, and the clarification of values within a single leadership program, Chickering's work provides a sequence by which the program's contents can be ordered to best be grasped and internalized by students.

The Elliott Fellows Program applies this model over the course of a semester. Examples of its content relating to each of the components in the framework include the following:

Table 2

Samples of Content for a Leadership Program
(Based on the Elliott Fellows Program)

Stage	Skills	Values
Understanding Self (I)	Reflective listening Speaking Feedback Assertiveness	Psychological types Personal values clarification
Understanding Groups (II)	Situational leadership Innovative problem solving Utilizing group resources Managing conflict	Defining leadership Win-lose/win-win orientations Ethical concerns in leading others Understanding conflict Organizational culture
Understanding the Context (III)	University hierarchy Effective campus advocacy Opportunities for campus involvement	University history and lore Goals of higher education

Skills I: The skill-related component of the first stage, understanding self, should combine both assessment and training. Emphases on communication and interpersonal skills such as reflective listening, public speaking, feedback, and assertiveness, are not only conceptually important, but help to create a bridge of relevance to daily life early in a program. Checklists of individual competencies may be developed to aid students in assessing the range of their skills and to encourage participants to set goals for their personal development.

Values I: While the skills component of stage one should clarify participants self-images, the values component should create an awareness that an individual's inclinations and preferences represent only one option from among a number of alternative viewpoints. Inventories of psychological type, such as the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1980) are inherently fascinating in providing personal profiles, but even more useful in illustrating the diversity of orientations by which others are characterized. The realization that different individuals may experience similar phenomena in widely varying ways can be used to foster a climate of openness for discussions of personal values. Participants should be chal-

lenged to examine the broad questions "who am I," "what is important to me," and "how do I see myself in relation to others," as well as "how do I feel about my answers to these questions?"

Skills II: In this phase, participants should benefit from research into group processes. Hersey and Blanchard's (1981) Situational Leadership model is a highly appropriate tool that is easy to learn and readily applicable. Instruction and role playing may be combined to help develop skills in problem solving, utilization of group resources, and conflict management.

The Elliott Fellows Program has included an outdoor ropes course experience as a part of its group process phase. The day-long or multi-day wilderness experience in group problem solving is not only an incomparable team building tool, but provides an effective laboratory for both the skills and values components of the program's second stage.

Values II: This may be the most crucial component of a leadership development program. The group may identify differing roles that individuals play in group settings, and attempt to define the role in which they ordinarily operate. Students should be asked to discuss what they perceive leadership to be. The facilitators should propose that leadership is a function, and not a title or position, and that leadership may be exercised by all individuals within a group, not only those designated as "leaders." A discussion of the nature of power and authority may highlight the notion of formal and informal leadership—that those in authority are not always powerful, and those who wield influence do not always have authority. Examining the concept of win-lose and win-win situations and understanding the nature of conflict are crucial because they can help to determine whether the leadership role is viewed as one of facilitation or one of domination.

Just as it is useful to understand how differing psychological types produce individuals differing in interpretations, an understanding of organizational culture can assist participants to see that similar phenomena operate at the organizational level. Schein (1985) has produced one of the clearest and most insightful works on the relationship between organizational culture and leadership.

Skills III: The context of the setting is, for university students, the university itself. Knowing who's who and who does what within the setting is a most important skill. The political realities of the setting, wherever it may be, are vital knowledge. Participants should also be trained for effective advocacy within the context of the setting, so that they have an idea of means and methods by which to best initiate action.

One of the primary goals of the UNCG program is to enhance the quality of the student leadership at the university. Toward this end, training in effective campus advocacy is accompanied by a group project in which the entire group identifies campus issues of special concern. Subgroups of four or five are then assigned an issue or problem on which they will conduct research and if appropriate, propose corrective measures. An important aspect of their research involves identifying the individuals who can exert influence and arranging interviews with university administrators who can provide perspective on the problem.

Since the Elliott Fellows are aspiring freshmen leaders, a major feature of the program is an overview of opportunities for campus involvement and the provision of access to individuals who can provide entry into those involvements. The participants are asked to envision themselves as juniors, as new graduates, and in mid-life, and to imagine the roles and experiences at the university in which they would most desire to partake.

Values III: Finally, values underlying the setting should be addressed and discussed. Students should discuss what a university is, why it exists, what its most important functions are, and what they wish to achieve as students. A conceptual understanding of organizational culture may now be made specific to the university. The history and lore of the institution and an appreciation of its mission, can help to create feelings of membership within the setting. At UNCG, a van tour takes participants to scenes of important campus historical events and to sites of campus buildings and features which no longer exist. While the notion of touring non-existent architecture may seem bizarre, the tour is very popular and useful for illustrating the vast changes in mission and emphases which characterize the background of the institution.

Conclusion

Frameworks and models do not achieve results—their applications do. An application of this model at UNCG, the Elliott Fellows Program, has in four years proven to be a valuable asset in developing a core group of capable and motivated student leaders. Applications of this model on different campuses will not be identical and can never completely address the topic of leadership. That, in a sense, is done in nearly all human interactions throughout one's life.

However, this model can provide a sound starting point for the creation of any student training effort. The progression from individual characteristics and group behavior to a merging of the two within the context of the setting,

moves students in logical steps which help to establish the relevance of the training. Within each stage, the progression from skills to personal identity to values, provides a sequencing which reflects students' natural development as individuals. A program such as this, combined with the practice of leadership skills in organizational settings of the student's choosing, can furnish a student with resources by which he or she can become a more motivated, more effective, and more compassionate leader.

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13

Linda Shaddix
Sheryl Scott

Selection and Training of Peer Educators For Substance Abuse Education and Prevention

Most college students are exposed daily to the opportunity to use alcohol and a significant percentage of this population is exposed to the opportunity to use illicit drugs which include marijuana, LSD, and cocaine. Many students have had or will have experiences with psychoactive drugs and some will experience serious negative consequences such as college dropout, arrest, and/or death as a result of psychoactive drug addiction (Galizio & Maistro, 1983). Significant factors in a student's decision to use drugs are the use, choice, and quantity of drug use of their friends. Peer influence is the strongest predictor of marijuana use among high school students (Kandel & Adler, 1982). In research on problem drinking among college students, Berkowitz and Perkins (1986) concluded that among social context variables peer influences outweighed the effects of family and environment and became stronger in adolescents and young adults. Perkins (1985) found that the influence of peers upon drinking was far greater than that of other environmental and family characteristics. Kandel (1980) suggested that (1) perceptions of peer use of alcohol and other drugs rather than the actual peer behavior may account for much of this influence, (2) the majority of students surveyed held inaccurate perceptions of campus alco-

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hol use attitudes, and (3) student perceptions of peer attitudes toward alcohol use, when examined in relation to personal attitudes toward alcohol use, more frequently predicted patterns of drinking.

The influence of peer relationships is especially important when students are away from their families and experiencing significant life transitions (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1986). There is little information in the literature regarding the use of peer helpers for substance abuse education and prevention in post secondary institutions; however, the value of peers as service providers in departments such as career development or learning services within student affairs has been well documented (Berenson et. al., 1986; Froman, 1972; Luther, 1972; Murray, 1972; Scott & Warner 1974; Yamauchi, 1986).

To help combat substance abuse, the University of North Carolina at Wilmington (UNCW) established ALTERNATIVES!, a comprehensive University program that provides substance abuse education and prevention services for all members of the University community. ALTERNATIVES! is administered by the Division of Student Affairs and is funded by student health fees and a grant awarded by the U.S. Department of Education's Fund for the Improvement of Post Secondary Education. In this program, two Master's Degree prepared employees work half-time with the education and prevention services. One of these employees, the Coordinator of Substance Abuse Education and Prevention, is a full-time employee funded by student health fees. Her responsibilities include directing the ALTERNATIVES! program (50%) and providing substance abuse counseling services (50%) through the Student Development Center. The Program Development Specialist is a half-time position funded by the grant. Her responsibilities include administering the program in the absence of the coordinator, assisting with student supervision, and advising BACCHUS. Services provided by ALTERNATIVES! may be used by students, staff, and faculty and include programs for those abusing substances, early intervention strategies for those developing problems with substance use, and support for those who have never used drugs.

In ALTERNATIVES!, in addition to professional staff, peer educators provide substance abuse education and prevention services. Peer educator responsibilities include staffing a resource center, providing educational programming, serving as role models for students, and supporting students who ask for assistance. This article describes the selection and training of peer educators and evaluates the initial interpersonal skills training of peer educators.

Selection

A seven member selection committee comprised of the director of ALTERNATIVES!, the program development specialist, the Dean of Students, psychology faculty, residence life staff, and two students, identified ten qualifications and characteristics necessary for the peer educators. These included successful academic performance in relevant classwork, compatible career goals, optimistic outlook, interpersonal warmth, leadership ability, minimum grade point average of 2.5, tolerance of divergent values, high energy level, interest in the program, and problem solving skills. Former use of alcohol or other drugs by applicants or by someone close to them, was determined to be a strength as long as a student had resolved substance abuse problems and had no legal action pending. The committee wanted the peer concept to be a primary consideration so men and women of varying ages and majors were recruited. Additionally, primary identification with a social group such as fraternities and sororities, athletes, surfers, skateboarders, or similar groups were sought. In order to attract the best applicant pool, announcements were sent to campus referral sources which included faculty and staff from departments of Minority Affairs, Residence Life, Career Planning, and Financial Aid. Additional announcements listing program requirements and responsibilities and application deadlines were posted on campus bulletin boards and placed in the campus newspaper. Three letters of reference were required with one coming from a faculty member. The application requirements included a statement of the student's philosophy of substance use, career goals, and reasons for wanting to be a student worker in ALTERNATIVES!

After the application deadline, a preliminary screening of the 29 applicants eliminated those who did not meet the minimum grade point average, had an unresolved legal situation involving alcohol or other drug use, or failed to submit three letters of recommendation. Following the initial screening, ALTERNATIVES! staff met with the 24 interested and qualified applicants to describe the selection procedure. In this meeting, students were asked to introduce themselves and to describe why they wanted to be involved. During this process staff observed each student's comfort when speaking before the group, willingness to assert herself/himself, manner of questioning other students, ability to articulate clearly, and maturity level. At another time, the applicants divided into small groups for instructions on a values clarification activity and for the Selection Committee observation of student interaction. The activity (see Appendix A) chosen was designed to provide the opportunity for applicants to clarify values, exercise listening

skills, activate leadership skills, demonstrate tolerance of divergent value systems, show their ability to work in a group, and use problem solving skills. At the conclusion of the exercise, the Selection Committee discussed the group process with the applicants. After the groups had completed the exercise, the Selection Committee narrowed the applicant pool to 12 candidates. These students were asked to return in groups of three for further assessment. In these sessions, students were asked a series of questions designed to assess their use of psychoactive chemicals and their knowledge of overall use at UNCW. Also, these groups generated ideas on how to combat the problems of substance abuse on campus. Based on student depth of insight and self-awareness, and the appropriateness of the applicant's own use, the Selection Committee selected 7 finalists. Then the director of ALTERNATIVES! met with these students to assess each applicants' sensitivity as a role model, talents and strengths, and desire to be involved in the program. Five students were selected as peer educators; who were students not selected were given personal feedback regarding their applications. Strong candidates who were not chosen were encouraged to explore the program as a practicum site, work study placement, or volunteer setting. Seven students selected the program as a practicum site, two students were assigned as work-study students, and three students chose to be volunteers. The five peer educators as well as the practicum and volunteer students participated in a special training program.

Training Model

The training model used was a Systematic Communication Skills Model based on the premise that helping can be for better or worse (Carkhuff, 1971), and that helping behaviors such as empathy, respect/caring, concreteness, genuineness, confrontation, immediacy, and self disclosure can be identified and taught (Berenson, 1986; Carkhuff, 1967, 1969a, b; 1971). Carkhuff's training program (1971) encompasses all of the elements needed to deliver brief but effective interpersonal skills training. In this model, the helping behaviors are divided into three stages: exploration, understanding, and problem solving and program development. Each stage has a rating scale that allows trainees, by rating responses, to monitor their responses and give feedback to each other regarding progress through the stages.

Exploration

The goals of the first stage, Exploration, are to allow the helpee to explore and find out as much as he/she can about his/her problem, and build a

credible relationship between helper and helpee. The behaviors required by the helper (in this case the peer educator) are physical attending (attending to the helpee nonverbally), psychological attending (focusing the helper's mental energy on the helpee), and listening.

Understanding

The second stage is called Understanding. The goals of this phase are to find a central theme and to personalize feeling, meaning, problem, and goal. The behaviors required by the helper are confrontation, self disclosure, immediacy, and genuineness.

Problem Solving and Program Development

The third stage is Problem Solving and Program Development. The goals of this stage are to find a solution to the problem and to outline steps to implement the solution. The behaviors required are problem-solving and program development.

Training Process

The training consisted of an initial orientation retreat and eight two-hour sessions. If students were not able to attend each session, make-up sessions were arranged. The first session of the training was the orientation retreat at the program director's home. The informal nature of this location provided a relaxed atmosphere for team building and student and staff interaction. The purposes of this meeting were to provide an overview of the training, an introduction on ethical standards of APA and the North Carolina Substance Abuse Counselor Professional Certification Board, and an opportunity to build a working relationship between students and staff. The training model was explained during the second session, and thereafter each session began with a review of the previous session. A sample role play exercise followed in which a helper and helpee volunteered to role play in front of the group. The group rated each response and gave feedback to the helper. The remainder of the session consisted of small group role playing (three students). The roles for the three students were helpee, helper, and rater. The helpee discussed a problem or situation with the helper, and the helper responded by applying skills learned in previous sessions. The rater kept a flow chart of the dialogue and gave feedback to the helper based on a rating scale (see Appendix B). The trainer and program coordinator walked among the groups to listen and give feedback after the rater had given feedback. After students had played each of the three roles, they changed groups and began the role play again.

Students were encouraged to discuss real problems and situations to allow for more accurate feedback on the appropriateness of the helper's responses to the helpee's situation. Students were then assigned written exercises from a workbook by Tindall and Gray (1987).

During the fifth session, students handed in an audiotape of themselves and someone else outside the class in a counseling session. The trainer gave written feedback to each student. Before the final session each trainee made a videotape of himself and someone from the class in a one-to-one session. The trainer met individually with each student after the final session to critique the videotape.

Evaluation

In order to evaluate the training program the staff held informal discussions with the twelve students present about the strengths and weaknesses of the training program. All twelve students thought the training was beneficial and enjoyable. In fact, two students decided to use the skills during their psychology practicum role plays. Two additional students said they felt more confident in their counseling situations for a rape crisis program after completing the ALTERNATIVES! training. The aspect of the communication skills model that the students found most helpful was the systematic structure of the program because it allowed students to monitor their progress throughout the entire training. Four of the students said they enjoyed the videotape because it allowed them to observe themselves when talking about something very important to them. One student was surprised to discover how animated and extraneous his gestures became when he was excited. The videotape allowed students to refine their helping skills.

Three students recommended that the workbooks not be used again because the books were too detailed and had complicated directions for fairly simple exercises. Finally, most of the students felt a stronger commitment to attend the training sessions should be required; they felt that inconsistent attendance was a weakness of the program.

After the students' evaluation, the trainer, the program coordinator, and the program development specialist met to discuss their thoughts about the training. All three agreed that Carkhuff's communication skills model was the best model to use, again because of its systematic structure and self-monitoring capability. The use of the audiotape was important because it encouraged students to use their skills outside the context of the training program.

The videotape was helpful to the students and the staff thought it could be even more helpful if used more often throughout the training. Staff agreed with the students' comments and plan to implement both suggestions with the next group of peer educators. Another change planned for the next group is for the trainer and either the program director or program development specialist to do more modeling of appropriate helping skills during the training sessions.

Discussion

The selection process and training program used at UNCW achieved the goal of preparing peer educators to provide substance abuse prevention and education services for faculty, staff, and students in a university setting. The selection process was strengthened by the solicitation of nominations from appropriate campus referral sources. Letters of reference provided information from faculty as well as previous employers or other knowledgeable individuals. The application packet provided insight regarding the student's motivations and background. However, the greatest strength of the selection process was the direct observation of students as they interacted: listening, influencing, and reacting. Attitudes emerged and values were clarified as the students moved through the selection process.

The limited time frame provided some strengths as well as weaknesses in the process. Students had only two weeks to complete their application materials. For some students, especially freshmen, this was a problem because some references were out of town. To resolve this problem, staff worked with the application as it stood until all materials were submitted. The established deadlines kept the process moving at a smooth pace; the selection and initial training were completed prior to Thanksgiving holidays. This enabled the students to focus their full attention on their preparation for finals when they returned to campus.

A strength in the selection process was the investment of time and energy made by students, Student Affairs staff, and faculty. This investment enhanced the likelihood of other departments using peer educators in programming for specific department activities. Strengths and weaknesses were noted in the training component also. Carkhuff (1969b) researched his rating scales, and found that a mean Communication Index (CI) score of 2.5 or above was a reasonable goal of a successful interpersonal skills training program. The average CI score for the peer educators in this program was 2.64, indicating that the program increases student communication skills. Student participants can be expected to generalize these skills to other areas

of their lives such as relationships with parents, teachers, future employers and employees, as well as use these skills in group situations.

Recommendations

In the future, other training topics such as understanding personal limitations, professional ethics, needs and motivations of substance abusers, and specific psychoactive chemical pharmacology can be covered. Continued counseling skills training will be woven into the training. Each student will receive one hour of individual supervision plus an in-service meeting of two hours every week. During the first week of Spring semester, peer educators will attend an intensive eight-hour series of training sessions on specific drugs, and community resources will be used in the in-service training in order to increase the students' knowledge and comfort in making referrals.

An additional consideration in examining the first group of peer educators is the individual differences which combine to bring a level of strength and diversity of experiences to ALTERNATIVES! Among the peer educators are persons recovering from drug or alcohol addiction, adult children of alcoholics, former abusers of drugs and a representation of different majors and races. They have experienced different academic preparations; some have completed counseling classwork, others attended the North Carolina School for Alcohol and Drug Studies, and others worked in a treatment center. These differing backgrounds and experiences serve to enhance the peer educators' ability to relate to differing students.

Conclusion

Perkins (1985) and Berkowitz and Perkins (1986) have documented that the most significant factor in a student's decision to use alcohol or other drugs is the use and perception of use by peers. Accepting the strength of peer influence, a substance abuse education and prevention program can capitalize on that influence in a positive way by carefully selecting, training, and supervising peer educators for primary service delivery.

Selection of students who will be accepted as peer educators is critical to the success of the program. For students to be viewed as peers by the wide variety of student populations targeted to receive the program's services, attention should be given to selecting peers from the various subgroups in the student body. The peers then should be involved in different social groups, be pursuing a variety of academic majors, and have characteristics of appropriate role models including positive attitudes, leadership skills, interpersonal warmth, problem solving abilities, and high energy levels.

The development of these carefully selected peers into competent peer educators must be based on continual education, training, and supervision

throughout their involvement in the program. A foundation must be developed early that focuses on interpersonal skills training in which students learn basic attending and listening skills, empathy, and problem identification. Additionally, a sense of being an important part of the team, a feeling of loyalty to the program, and the clarification of their role develops as the peers proceed through the selection and training.

The peers then are prepared to assume the responsibilities of their position and are supported and guided through close supervision from professional staff. The number of students reached by the substance abuse education and prevention program will be greatly increased by using peers while high quality of services is sustained through the directing and monitoring of the professional staff.

A comprehensive substance abuse education and prevention program on a college or university campus can be enhanced by the use of carefully selected, trained, and supervised peer educators as primary service providers.

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Appendix A
Responsible Drinking?

In America we do not have a concensus as to what constitutes responsible drinking behavior. This, then leads to controversy and confusion regarding the definition of problem drinking and standards of responsible drinking.

Please rank the following examples from — most responsible drinking behavior (1) to least responsible drinking behavior (9). There will be one choice numbered 1, one numbered 2, etc. Then within your group, please discuss your ranking and arrive at a consensus ranking.

Individual Rating	Group Rating	
_____	_____	Sheryl and Jim enjoy each other's company a lot. They sometime enjoy going out dancing at a bar. When they drink, although Sheryl reaches her limit before Jim, she doesn't like to refuse Jim's offer of another round.
_____	_____	When Jackie throws a party she goes all out. There's always good food and plenty of beer and wine, but she also serves non-alcoholic beverages for those who choose not to drink.
_____	_____	After a hard day's work, George usually comes home and has a few drinks in order to relax.
_____	_____	Amy likes to have a good time at parties and she enjoys drinking even through she doesn't go to a party-just-to drink but also to see friends and to have a good time. Drinking to her is one way of enhancing some of her social activities but is not the focus of these activities.
_____	_____	Hitting the bars is one of John's favorite weekend pastimes, but he knows his limit and tries to stick to it. John knows how much alcohol he can handle and still drive safely.
_____	_____	Carl has missed four classes this quarter because he has been really hung over. His grades have started to suffer and Carl has decided to do something about his excessive drinking.
_____	_____	Jim only drinks beer (the most consumed alcoholic beverage in America). Sometimes he will drink in excess of two six packs before a football game. Jim says that the only reason he drinks is to get drunk.

_____ _____ Sue has been complaining to some of her classmates that she feels bored and lonely. To escape these feelings, Sue sits at home alone and drinks.

_____ _____ Lori often goes to fraternity parties. She does not drink beer but in order to "fit in" she stands with a drink in her hand — "to look the part."

Appendix B

Additive Empathy

5.0 Personalized feeling, deficit, and goal (you feel _____ [at/with] yourself because you cannot _____ and you want to _____).

4.5 Personalize feeling and deficit (you feel _____ [at/with] yourself because you cannot _____).

4.0 Personalize deficit (you feel _____ because you cannot _____).

3.5 Personalize problem (you feel _____ because you _____).

Interchangeable Empathy

3.0 Interchangeable feeling and content (you feel _____) because _____

2.5 Interchangeable feeling (you feel _____).

2.0 Interchangeable content

1.0 Irrelevant response

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James M. Lancaster

Establishment of Computerized Data Base Management Systems for Disciplinary Records

The maintenance of disciplinary records is one aspect of every campus disciplinary system which involves labor intensive efforts, legal liability, and a potential for error. Such records are subject to accepted standards for confidentiality, security, and review. These needs are balanced by the desirability for ease of authorized access to summary information, as well as a need to maintain them in updated fashion. The advent of a generation of powerful, personal, desk-top computers and improved software has made security, access, and maintenance for such record systems a far simpler task than has previously been possible.

While some might continue to argue that the computer is an impersonal tool which places an artificial barrier between students and student development professionals, the decision to utilize such tools should not be laden with such *a priori* value judgments. The computerized data base is simply a means of entering comparable types of information into a computer memory which will then allow various methods to be employed in recalling that information through SORT, FIND, or similar commands. Computer use may well be viewed as an enhancement of the potential for responding to individual student needs (Pyle, 1984), enabling counselors and advisors to tailor programs and information to the needs of each student.

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In establishing a computerized base for disciplinary records, many of the same criteria which apply to establishment of any data base should be applied. Other choices will be specific to the needs of a disciplinary record system. The concerns of the general user regarding data base management are briefly discussed in the first of the three following sections. The second section offers advice on hardware/software considerations. In the third section, the specific concerns of those considering design of a disciplinary records data base are treated.

Step One: Needs Assessment

If one thinks of a computerized data base as an electronic file cabinet, certain desirable options quickly become apparent. It would be convenient to be able to rearrange files into various categories, to be able to find certain files which contain comparable types of information, to list this information quickly and in a variety of categories, and to have the capability of compiling reports from this information without manually sorting through each file. To accomplish these desired results, every record (individual case) in this electronic file cabinet would need to be identified by a variety of categories or "fields" of information. Name, address, phone number, and social security number are obvious fields. What other information is currently or might in the future be needed? In the initial stage of the assessment, consideration should be given to all possible needs as a "wish list" which may be translated more realistically at a later time. For example, would it be sufficient to simply list information in the order in which it was entered, or would the rearrangement of such data into new categories via a SORT process be important? Consideration should be given to the manner in which existing paper files are presently used, the limitations of such use, and the information which is sought from such files. If such files are frequently consulted for recurring types of information, note these types. Consider, as well, the need for summary reports based on information contained within files. One recent review has suggested that use of a centralized data base management system to produce such records can assist not only in the adjudication process, but in planning and enforcement for overall campus security (Lopez, 1987). In short, a computerized data base offers the opportunity for storage of large amounts of routine information, continual update of information, as available, without regard to the order in which information is entered into the data base, and the flexibility to rearrange this information into a variety of differing formats dependent on the needs which arise. Such

information can then be utilized more effectively to assist in planning, implementation, and evaluation of judicial policies and programs.

Step Two: Hardware/Software Decisions

Once the needs for information have been considered, it is time to review options and make decisions regarding hardware (computers and peripheral equipment) and software (application programs). This decision requires careful evaluation of the functions to which such equipment and programming will be committed. An excellent guide to the selection of computer hardware and software has been recently published by Risenberg (1984).

Educate yourself as to your own needs, products which appear to fit those needs and applications which may not currently be utilized but which, in the future, may be necessary. Consider all needs, including the potential necessity of compatibility with other, existing systems. Microcomputers have proven to be much like photocopiers in their utility—once one possesses such a device, the uses to which it will be put multiply far beyond the anticipated needs.

In general the use of a hard disk as a component of the computer, while initially more costly, will guarantee that current and reasonably pruned historical files may be accommodated. The hard disk will also reduce the likelihood that multiple, single diskettes will be needed to move between programs or handle larger data bases. Whatever the mode of storage, either diskette or hard disk, a user must have a review system by which old information becomes outdated, is identified, and removed from the system. Such a system of "purging" files will insure that memory capacity is utilized to the best effect.

Software is a rapidly changing area in which innovation is virtually a daily occurrence. Data base programs or file managers represent the two principal categories of information management software. File managers are exactly what their title suggests: methods for managing file information, with greater or lesser amounts of sophistication. They can serve admirably for basic handling of records but generally do not provide great flexibility for actual program design. Data base programs tend toward greater complexity and flexibility and will generally be more powerful in the choices they offer for design of the data base.

Choice of software is an exercise in which experience is a very good teacher. Consult with other users on your campus or in your academic or administrative computing units or professional associations to discover

which software in conjunction with the anticipated operating systems provides the most flexible and least difficult utilization.

During this consultation with other users, consider the need for record security. The extent and manner in which security is offered through electronic data management will depend on the operating system and the software chosen. Simplicity in system and program will generally mean fewer security options. More complex systems and sophisticated software will provide more security opportunities. In either case, duplicate versions of information should be "copied" or "backed up," a process for which virtually every system and software combination provides some method. Two excellent resources to assist in the decision-making process for purchase and the consideration of liability, security and legal issues surrounding use of computers are contained in recent publications on computer assistance in student affairs by Johnson and Hamrick (1987) and by Hollander (1986).

Step Three: Designing the Data Base for Disciplinary Records

Following the selection and purchase or adaptation of hardware and software, the user is ready to begin setting-up the data base for operation. Use of existing disciplinary files as test cases on which to build the data base design is useful since these files will pose real world problems directly applicable to the user's needs. Examine existing paper files and categorize the types of information contained within them. It will generally be indefensible from a time and resource standpoint to plan a system which incorporates all written correspondence into the data base. Consider only information from all sources which may be summarized and which would be of use in quickly sorting, reporting or categorizing disciplinary records. This is the real value of the electronic data management capability.

Begin the process of creation by listing all of the summary information which might be needed regarding a disciplinary record. In considering such information, think further as to how such information can be categorized for consistent reporting. If you wish to use your data base to retrieve from fields of information such as "type of offense," then offenses must be entered into the data base according to a planned list of choices. The "Administrative Judicial Record System-Instructions" located in Appendix One suggest the types of categories and instructions for use which might arise in this consideration. A written set of instructions for entering information is vital since all who enter such information must do so according to an agreed upon system or through a series of "prompts" generated by the software. The data base can only be as reliable as the information which is entered into it. For

example, the terms "fight" and "assault" may convey similar meaning to a reader, but to a computer they will appear completely unrelated.

Some software will allow the user to translate an existing paper form into an electronic form within the data base. In such software, the design of the data base can be based upon the existing paper forms originally designed to be completed by hand. If such paper forms do not exist already, the design of one as an early step in thinking through the design of the data base can be very useful. Forms inserted into the data base assist in organizing information and in presenting it in a fashion which is useful to current needs and time-saving when repeated review of records is necessary. A sample form is located in Appendix Two.

Decisions concerning appropriate information for inclusion within the data base as well as the choice of presentation formats in which this information will appear must be based upon user needs and the limitations presented by software. The form suggested in Appendix Two offers one set of choices for an institution. Each choice is explained in the "Records System-Instructions" previously referenced as Appendix One.

With the establishment of a design for the data base, what remains is the organization of the data into a format, or form, which makes sense to the user and is most applicable for the purposes of the data base. If the software in use allows for custom form installation as the means of organizing data, then the initial form used in designing the data base will prove generally applicable for installation of data into the data base. The form shown as Appendix Two is utilized in such an application with an Apple Macintosh system driven by Microsoft File software. In this format, once the data base "Judicial Records" is requested from the menu, this form appears containing the first record entered, unless another selection by FIND or SORT commands is requested.

Through the use of such a form, one can then install fields such as name, address, charges, hearing and sanction information and arrange these with appropriate detail to fully summarize any disciplinary record. As the form in Appendix Two demonstrates, a data base very specific to the user's needs can be designed to include particular fields which will allow SEARCH or FIND procedures to be utilized in a most accurate manner. To test how effectively the design of the data base has accomplished the needs of the user, it is best to select five to ten cases from which to enter all data requested on the data form. By first entering this data, and then utilizing various SORT or FIND organizing functions, likely problems with your design will emerge. Depending on the flexibility of the software and system employed, these problems can be repaired prior to the installation of all data. The most difficult problems to repair will be those which appear only after all data have

been entered into the data base. Therefore, it is impossible to overstate the importance of using test cases to eliminate potential problems.

With attention to these steps of development and sound pre-planning, design and implementation of an electronic data base for disciplinary records can be accomplished with a minimum of problems and maximum rewards for the users!

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Appendix One

Administrative Judicial Records System - Instructions
(see below for Residence Offenses)

Entries for Name/Address Field/Identification Fields

Name—Last, First, Middle or initial
Address—Local Mailing Address. Include box, not room, for campus
Last Entry—Enter current working date or "command symbol" with hyphen-altered each time file is entered
Repetition Number—Number of previous cases heard, this individual (ie: 1, 2, 3, etc)
Phone—Local phone number
SS Number—Nine digit Federal Social Security number or campus ID number
Classification—Spell out classification at University, Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Special, Visiting, etc
Date of Birth—Full date, as in, October 19, 1987

Purge Date—Non-criminal, non-suspension, two years from anticipated graduation date; Major Criminal and/or suspension, indefinite = September 9, 1999

Entries for Charges through Alcohol/Drug Fields

Charges—Brief statement of all charges with GS number if available
Brought By—Individual signing charge letter, last name only
Date Charge Rec—Full date on which charge letter received in office
Violation Date—Full date on which violation occurred or NA if not applicable
Alcohol/Drug—Yes or No as to involvement of alcohol/drug, whether or not charged

Entries for Current Deadline through Notification Fields

Current Deadline—Enter next required date of contact for student
Status—Enter "Pending" for unresolved cases or "Complete" if closed
PHC Scheduled/Held—Full date on which Pre-Hearing scheduled & held
Type of Adjudication—Either Administrative Hearing or Administrative Review or Student hearings
Notification—Full date on which Notification of Adjudication Date letter was sent

Entries for Hearing Officer through Notification Fields

Hearing Officer—Last name of hearing officer
Panelists—Last names of panelists or NA for not applicable
Decision—Decision of adjudication process, either guilty or not guilty
Notification—Full date on which Notification of Adjudication Findings letter was sent

Entries for Category Field

Major Offenses

Assaults, Major—Sexual, Non-sexual affrays with physical damages
Drugs, Felony—Sale, possession for distribution, possession of Category I or II substance
Threats—Communicating threats, intimidation, harassment
Theft, Felony—in excess of $400, involvement of firearms, etc.
Fraud—Criminal, for purposes of profit, to defraud another
Alcohol, Major—Possession/provision to underage person, use of false or wrong license, driving while impaired or related offense
Trespass—With Criminal Prosecution
Delay and Obstruction—of Officer—related to police, arrest interference, etc.

Minor Offenses

Assaults, Simple—Non-sexual affrays or affrays bordering on disruption of peace
Drugs, Misdemeanor—Simple possession, first offenders, etc, category III or IV

Harassment—Non-criminal, first offense
Theft, Misdemeanor—Less than $400, first offense
Alcohol, Simple—Simple possession, underage; or underage use without mitigating factors
Falsification—to University Officials
Forgery—Misuse of University documents, records or ID card, misuse of University name.
Physical Abuse/Hazing
Property Damage—Generally to University or private property
Obstruction—to University officials, not police, in pursuit of their official duties
Abuse of Trust—Willful abuse of position of trust within the campus
Disorderly/Obscene—conduct in violation of peace or public obscenity
Trespass, Simple—University property without arrest
Residence Offenses
Probation Violation
Behavior—Disruptive behavior not categorized as above

Entries for Sanction Field

(Below entries may be explained in "Comments/Notes" Field)

Expulsion
Suspension
Probation
Censure
Damages—costs associated with behavior or charges
Service
Counseling Referral—Orientation to Counseling Center
Psychological Evaluation
Residence Exclusion—ban from Residence Life housing
Suspended Sanction—note category of sanction
Pending—Indicates decision incomplete
Campus Exclusion—Selected areas of campus
Campus Ban—No presence allowed on campus
Other—indicate above or new category with reference to "Comments"

Residence and Student Court Offense

For offenses heard in a Residence Life or Student Court disciplinary proceeding, enter only the following field:

Name—Last, first, middle
Last Entry—Enter current working date or "command symbol" with hypen-altered each time file is entered
Jurisdiction—"Residence" or "Student Court"
SS Number—Social Security Number
Classification—Spell out classification at University, Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, Special, Visiting, etc

Purge Date—Non-criminal, non-suspension, two years from anticipated graduation date; Major Criminal and/or suspension, indefinite = September 9, 1999

Status—Enter "Pending" for unresolved cases or "Complete" if closed

Category—"Residence Offenses" or "Student Offenses" as appropriate

Appendix Two

2 Sample | John | Q.

1800 Ivory Tower Road

Anywhere | NC | 00000

Last Entry	Repetition Number	Phone	Jurisdiction

SS Number	Classification	Date of Birth	Purge Date

Charges	Brought By	Date Charge Rec

Violation Date	Alcohol	Drug

Current Deadline	Status	PHC Scheduled	PHC Held

Adjudication Date	Type of Adjudication	Notification

Hearing Officer	Panelists

Decision	Notification	Category

Sanctions

Comments/Notes

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John J. Schmidt
George A. Antonelli

University and State Department Alliance: Building a Bridge for Student Services

Student services programs are a vital component of educational institutions at all levels of preparation—elementary school through college. Any effort aimed at articulating and coordinating student services among all levels will help to bridge the gaps between elementary, secondary, and higher education. Most importantly, such effort will emphasize the need for continuous services and planning throughout a student's educational career.

In this article, we explore the issue of educational planning and its importance to all student services professionals, regardless of their level of practice. Our focus is the role of student services professionals at all educational levels, and the importance of having professionals form alliances that develop appropriate and comprehensive service programs to assist students in educational planning and development.

Student Services Workshops

During the past eight years, the Student Services and Special Programs Division of the North Carolina University, in cooperation with the School Counseling Section of the Department of Public Instruction, has brou together school counselors from across the state to describe and clarity

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admissions requirements and educational goals of the sixteen institutions of the university. A primary focus for these meetings has been to improve the racial balance on all sixteen campuses. This effort was initially established April 24, 1979 through a Consent Decree between the federal government and the university system (University of North Carolina—General Administration, 1979). The decree stated that "In cooperation with the State Department of Public Instruction, the University General Administration shall sponsor a series of workshops for . . . counseling staffs" (p. 13). Furthermore, it mandated that the workshops would "highlight the institutions' policy of nondiscrimination and their intent to increase minority enrollment" (p. 13).

The Consent Decree declared that the school counselor workshops would present information to public school personnel that would help students in completing high school and acquaint all North Carolina students with the opportunities available in the university. The workshops would also provide information and strategies to help junior high school students and their parents learn about educational opportunities, available financial aid, and the importance of course selection in grades seven through nine to prepare for college admissions.

By addressing each of these issues, the annual workshops for school counselors resulted in another, equally important, conclusion. The workshops pointed out that educational planning begins early in a student's life and continues throughout his or her educational career. Educational planning cannot wait until the junior or senior year of high school, or until the student applies to the university. This conclusion is significant for student services professionals at all levels of education (Hackley & Antonelli, 1987).

One result of this conclusion was to include elementary counselors in the annual workshops. By including counselors from all grade levels, the workshops highlighted the importance of continuing services and educational planning for all students.

A second result occurred in 1987 when the audience of the workshops was expanded to include all public school student services workers: school counselors, psychologists, social workers, and nurses. The decision to expand the audience of student service workers resulted in a dramatic increase in attendance at the workshops from 1,104 counselors in 1986 to 1,624 student service professionals in 1987 (Antonelli, 1988). The increase in the number and types of professionals who received information on university requirements, financial aid, and the importance of junior and senior high course selection was a positive development in adding to the

number of school personnel who will assist students with their educational planning.

Educational Planning: A Lifelong Process

A pervasive myth is perpetuated in our educational programs, from kindergarten through graduate studies. It is the myth that educational and career decisions are made suddenly by students in their high school years (or sometimes not until their college years). The perpetuation of this myth does a disservice to a large segment of our youth and short-changes many educational institutions. It places unnecessary pressure on students to make critical life decisions in a very brief time. More seriously, however, it helps perpetuate biases and prejudices of our society by neglecting disadvantaged and underprivileged youth. Too frequently these young people fail to enter schools of higher learning because their early educational plans are either nonexistent or off target.

By delaying or ignoring the need for educational and career planning in their early education, disadvantaged students frequently fail to enroll in curricula that enable them to prepare for postsecondary education. In some cases, this happens because student services professionals, such as school counselors, are not available to assist students and to help teachers identify the students who could benefit from more rigorous curricula. In other cases, student services programs are not sufficiently comprehensive and therefore their services are limited to a select group of students: either students who experience severe difficulties or students who are advanced academically and on track for higher education. This limited focus neglects students who need support and guidance to make appropriate educational plans. Many of these students may not be receiving necessary support at home.

It is critical for student services professionals at all levels to recognize the importance of educational planning as a lifelong process. The process should begin in the early years of schooling and continue throughout postsecondary education. It is imperative that student services professionals establish bridges to communicate and coordinate their efforts at all educational levels. To do that, it is helpful for them to understand the similarities of their professional roles in their respective educational institutions.

A comprehensive program of student services at all grade levels and in every stage of development is essential. This is as true in the elementary schools as it is at the university. A comprehensive program of services assists all students when it provides a "wide-lens" focus on the developmental, preventive, and remedial needs of students (Purkey & Schmidt, 1987). At the same time, a program of comprehensive services should focus on "the whole student as an academic being, social being, and psychological being" (Boyles, 1986, p. 82). A holistic view of student services requires a wide range of professional interventions, including counseling, assessment, placement, orientation, tutoring, and educational information.

Development. Student services professionals who work in elementary, secondary and university settings offer many opportunities for students to learn about their own development and to make appropriate educational, social, and career decisions. In elementary and secondary schools, counselors frequently use learning activities with groups to help develop self-awareness, improve peer relationships, or assist with career exploration. Mullendore and Leonard (1986) encouraged university student affairs professionals to adopt a developmental approach for establishing "mutually satisfying relationships" with students (p. 6). They suggested activities for counselors and other student services professionals at all levels of education. These outreach activities include: large group presentations in classrooms, open forum discussion groups, peer advisory groups, and informal interactions with, students.

Developmental services allow counselors and other student personnel professionals to interact with a larger percentage of students in their institutions. In addition, they help integrate student services into the total educational program. Student services become an essential component of the educational program rather than simply a "support" service.

Prevention. A comprehensive student services program includes information and intervention activities that help students avoid problems and difficulties. These services are preventive in nature. In elementary and secondary schools, they often take the form of assessment or consultation activities. For example, a school counselor or psychologist might assist students and teachers by administering educational tests or psychological evaluations that provide data to determine the most appropriate educational placement, thus avoiding learning problems for the student. School counselors, psychologists, social workers, and health services professionals also consult with administrators, teachers, and parents to help them identify home and school factors that are hindering the development of students.

At the higher education level, preventive strategies are used in student orientation activities, health services, and other programs. Student orientation activities, for example, are critical in helping students become familiar with a college or university, its educational requirements, student social life, and other aspects which influence their performance in college. In addition, orientation services for parents are preventive measures because they educate parents on student life, the pressures and challenges encountered by today's college students, and the normal developmental changes of young adulthood (Mann, 1986).

University student affairs offices administer a multitude of developmental and preventive services through counseling, financial aid, career planning, intramurals, campus security, and testing. In most of these efforts, the same skills, goals and objectives found in elementary, middle, and high school student services programs are needed.

Information services and activities are important preventive strategies at all educational levels, and are particularly vital at the university where students assume responsibility for making decisions, meeting deadlines, and satisfying requirements in their academic programs. Student services professionals at elementary, secondary, and university levels, who pay close attention to providing continuous and accurate information to students, teachers, and parents, help prevent miscommunications and misinformation which frequently hinder or interrupt student development and progress.

It is particularly important that information from counselors and other student services professionals be given equitably to prevent individuals or groups of students from being overlooked and underserved. Recent studies indicate that a large segment of students is not receiving sufficient information and guidance about course selection and other curriculum decisions needed to allow them to make appropriate and informed educational and career choices (Lee & Ekstrom, 1987). Student services professionals at all levels should provide accurate information in an equitable manner to assure that all students have access to services appropriate for them.

Remediation. As important as developmental and preventive activities are to a comprehensive program of student services, it is naive for student services professionals to ignore the reality that some students have problems and need immediate attention. Students at all educational levels are faced with social, personal, career, and learning problems that, if unresolved, can cripple their development. As a part of a comprehensive program, student services professionals provide activities and strategies that help students resolve current problems and develop coping skills for the future.

Student services professionals offer a wide range of counseling, consulting, and referral services to assist students who are experiencing difficulties.

These services exist in elementary and secondary schools as well as in universities. Critical problems of our society, such as substance abuse, eating disorders, depression, and suicide, touch all age groups, and services to assist students with these concerns are necessary. Remedial services complement the developmental and preventive activities of a comprehensive student services program.

Establishing and Maintaining Communication

All student services professionals have a vested interest in seeing to it that students at every level of education are provided a program of comprehensive services to assist with development, prevention of future difficulties, and remediation of present concerns. The focus of educational planning for *all* students at the annual workshops sponsored by the General Administration of the University of North Carolina in cooperation with the Department of Public Instruction has established a forum through which avenues of communication between student services professionals can be opened. Such avenues of communication have a beneficial effect on services for students at all educational levels.

In addition to the annual workshops, student services professionals have other avenues of communication. Many counselors in the public schools and the universities belong to the North Carolina Association for Counseling and Development (NCACD). Other student services professionals belong to organizations such as the North Carolina School Psychology Association (NCSPA), the North Carolina College Personnel Association (NCCPA), and the North Carolina School Social Workers Association (NCSSWA). Through these professional groups, student services professionals can communicate common goals and objectives that aim at assisting all students in educational and career development (Worthington, 1987). One small example of this cooperative communication was the North Carolina School Counselor Association's (NCSCA) advertisement of the 1987 student services workshops in its fall newsletter and its publication of the new minimum admissions requirements for the university (Carr, 1987).

An optimal goal for student services professionals in all educational institutions is to open lines of communication and recognize that the choices and plans students make during their entire educational career are part of a continuous process. It is a process that can be greatly facilitated by helping professionals in health services, student testing, counseling, social work, religious affairs, campus life, psychology, and many other fields of student services. All of these services have the power to contribute to every student's

development. By continuing to improve communications among student services at all levels of education, we clearly increase the power to assist more students and develop North Carolina's most important resource, it's children.

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Bonita Jacobs

Beyond Policy: Ethical Considerations in Student Development

Much of our time and energy in student development is dedicated to devising and implementing policies and procedures which will "work" for us in our administrative roles. While it is important to fulfill these obligations, it is also urgent to determine if we are approaching our responsibilities with a willingness to examine ourselves within an ethical framework. This examination begins with a look at our day-to-day activities and the impact we have on students, colleagues, and the educational environment.

Kitchener (1985) described five principles important to the activities and ethical choices of student affairs professionals: (1) *autonomy* (respecting freedom of choice and self-determination); (2) *nonmaleficence* (not inflicting harm); (3) *beneficence* (doing good and preventing harm); (4) *justice* (fairness); and (5) *fidelity* (keeping promises and being loyal). Ethical dilemmas are created when these principles offer conflicting guidance, and ethical impropriety exists when they are ignored. These principles ought to be incorporated into the working vernacular of the student development specialist, and there are a number of ways in which this may be accomplished.

Ethics and the Development of Students

All too often student affairs professionals justify programs and policies by their current menu of programs rather than by any documented evidence of the developmental needs of students. The ethical approach to planning

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incorporates a systematic evaluation of the success of the programs into future planning. For example, if an activity fails to produce participation, it must be determined if the approach or the lack of relevancy is the primary causal factor, and appropriate adjustments must be made. "The quality institution has a system of feedback on student development that enables it to make appropriate adjustments in programs or policies when the need for change or improvement is indicated" (Astin, 1980, p. 8). This system of feedback would involve not only determining "popular" programs (observing the principle of autonomy), but also determining programs which will most adequately meet the developmental needs of individual groups of students (observing the principles of beneficence and justice).

Planning and evaluation are not limited to programming for the student affairs professional. We are the primary architects shaping the environment in which students have the opportunity to experience optimal growth. Our responsibilities include not only formulating policy but also taking a hard look at our professional ethics in the dissemination of these policies. The result of this environmental impact upon students has been copiously discussed (Hurst, 1980), with the environment being conceptualized as including physical, social, cultural, academic, and administrative components. The student affairs professional has a responsibility to incorporate in a more systematic manner "the long-standing concern for individual change with the importance of the environment and environmental change" (Banning, 1980, p. 30). This may include adding lighting to ease fears at night (observing the principle of beneficence), realizing scheduling needs for students who are single mothers (observing the principle of justice), or responding swiftly to a request by the residence hall government for information on a health or safety risk (observing the principle of nonmaleficence).

Furthermore, ethics should be of concern when advising students and student organizations. The effective adviser provides guidance while allowing student leaders to make decisions (observing the principle of autonomy), serves as a resource person on whom students can depend (observing the principle of fidelity), communicates reasonable expectations (observing the principle of nonmaleficence), and shows tolerance for student concerns (observing the principle of justice). Being an effective adviser also requires one to maintain flexibility when working with students, and advising styles should be determined by the level of the students' development. Allen (1983) illustrated this in terms of matching the adviser style (director, teacher, adviser, or consultant) with the maturity level of the student organization (infancy, adolescence, young adulthood, or maturity). Incorporating ethical principles into the adviser role requires that the advisor take time to understand the organization's needs and make adjustments as necessary.

The responsibilities of the student affairs professional toward student development are great. Whether the issue at question is planning, formulating a safe and effective environment, due process, advising, or confidentiality, the ethical approach demands that the development of students be a top priority.

> We have been the primary professional group focusing on developmental outcomes for students in our theorizing, our programming, and our research. We struggle to define appropriate developmental outcomes, to determine ways of measuring them, and to find out what programs best accomplish them. These efforts must continue, but in our efforts to justify our worth in the future we must not lose sight of student development as a primary concern. (Brown, 1987, p. 3)

The Ethics of Professional Development

Four stages of professional development have been suggested by Carpenter (1983): (1) *formative* (acquiring educational preparation), (2) *application* (entry-level position requiring implementation of theory into practice with a level of independence), (3) *additive* (policy-making and supervisory positions), and (4) *generative* (achieved by few, this position is one of "senior statesperson" and/or theoretician in the field). For each of these levels of professional development, there are opportunities to work toward a "dedication of excellence" by observing basic ethical responsibilities.

The Formative Level. During the formative stage of development, the aspiring student affairs professional acquires educational training for the profession generally in the role of a full-time student. During this time "students have two responsibilities related to autonomy: development of their own independence and recognition of the autonomy of their advisor and others" (Brown & Krager, 1985, p. 408). It is important that this period be used not only to gain knowledge but also to accept the responsibility to pursue individual interests with scholarly enthusiasm. Being prepared to assume a position in student affairs at the end of formal training includes the ability to function independently and creatively.

Nonmaleficence during the formative level infers that the student will avoid manipulative power plays and coalitions, and will approach the program with enthusiasm and a positive attitude. According to ACPA Standards (1981), "when the member and the institution encounter substantial disagreements or conflicts concerning professional or personal values, the member has the responsibility to directly and constructively seek resolution

of the conflicts" (p. 186) rather than reacting in an indirect and distructive manner (nonmaleficence). On the other hand, beneficence during the formative level involves the student in the sharing of ideas and information. The student becomes a major support person for other students and the profession.

Two of the most important ethical principles necessary in a professional staff position are justice and tolerance, and it is during the formative level that these traits should be developed or refined. By being open to ideas from professors and other students and by developing an understanding of the backgrounds and career goals of other students, the future student affairs professional is developing meaningful professional traits which will transfer to the work environment.

Likewise, confidentiality and honesty (fidelity) are transferable traits. A willingness to support and maintain respect for the institution, (rather than unswerving loyalty) can be the passageway for the development of such traits in a professional position. "Although loyalty develops as an emotional bond over time [whether during educational training or in a professional position], it is an expected and natural response to a relationship offering autonomy, nonmaleficence, beneficence, justice, and trust" (Brown & Krager, 1985, p. 414).

The Application Level. During the application level of development, the young professional begins to apply the information gained through formal educational training. The ethical approach is to permit flexibility on the part of students (observing the principle of autonomy) and to avoid placing undue expectations on students and other staff (observing the principle of nonmaleficence). The ethical student affairs professional will recognize the positive traits in others and encourage their development (observing the principle of beneficence), and will be both available to all students on a need basis (observing the principle of justice) and supportive of them (observing the principle of fidelity).

The current ACPA Statement of Ethical and Professional Standards (1981) includes specific references how the student affairs professional might achieve this. The following excerpts are applicable:

> A.(1). Members treat students as individuals who possess dignity, worth, and the ability to be self-directed and assist students in becoming productive, responsible citizens and members of society . . .
>
> (4). Members respect the student's right to privacy . . .
>
> (5). Members confront students in a professional manner with issues and behaviors that have ethical implications . . .

B.(3). Members model ethically responsible behavior for students and colleagues and expect ethical behavior among members and non-members at all times . . .

C.(4). Members support the appropriate efforts of fellow student affairs professionals and institutional programs . . . (pp. 184-185).

The Additive Level. The additive level of development involves policy-making and supervisory responsibilities, and new challenges are encountered. The student affairs professional must now assume responsibility for the shaping of major policies and procedures within a student affairs area. Actions and non-actions can have a major impact on the morale and climate of personnel and departments.

In *Pieces of Eight* (1978), the eight administrators/authors discussed eighteen "kisses of death" for the student affairs supervisor. When placed in the context of ethics, these errors of judgment can offer new insight for the reader. These "kisses of death" and the ethical principle(s) which each violates are as follows:

KISSES OF DEATH	*VIOLATED ETHICAL PRINCIPLE(S)*
1. Ducking difficult or hazardous decisions	Autonomy
2. Being unproductive or destructively pessimistic	Nonmaleficence
3. Consistently making bad judgments	Nonmaleficence
4. Underestimating the importance of consultation	Autonomy/Justice
5. Preoccupation with popularity, status, support, or power	Nonmaleficence/Fidelity
6. Inability to express concern, warmth, or understanding	Beneficence
7. Intolerance of or lack of respect for human differences	Justice
8. Consistently offering rationalizations and excuses for errors	Autonomy
9. Putting things off	Autonomy/Fidelity
10. Failing to recall requests, commitments, or ideas	Fidelity
11. Inability to avoid provoking or insulting others	Nonmaleficence
12. Inability to delegate or overdelegation	Autonomy
13. Being disloyal to superiors, subordinates, and colleagues	Fidelity

14. Not understanding human relationships ....Justice/Beneficence
15. Applying administrative strategies without sufficient understanding .....Nonmaleficence
16. Lacking the stamina or energy to do the job .....Autonomy
17. Violating confidentiality, rumor-mongering, accepting hearsay, lying, etc. .....Nonmaleficence
18. Inability to earn respect and take the lead .....Autonomy

As in the above illustration, supervisors can analyze their management styles and activities in terms of ethical behavior. "In a professional and social environment that is becoming increasingly legalistic, it is important that supervisors choose their roles on an informed and deliberate basis. . . Training should be provided that helps supervisors to recognize areas of unethical or illegal practices and to act on their awareness efficiently and effectively" (Cormier & Bernard, 1982).

The Generative Level. Although the generative level may include prominent researchers, teachers, and writers, the focus of this discussion will be upon the practitioner who will generally support and be involved with research, teaching, and writing. Few achieve this level of statesmanship and the ethical imperatives for them are broad and encompassing. The responsibilities include such diverse functions as those of role model, climate setter, advocate, provocateur (inciter of action and thought), educator, performance monitor, and supporter of research and evaluation concerning the developmental outcomes of various student personnel activities (Thomas, Murrell, and Chickering, 1982).

Ethical leaders are those who know themselves and are able to feel confident in themselves and their abilities to perform their jobs (principle of autonomy). They are not easily threatened by others' knowledge and abilities. In addition, they avoid doing things which will develop an overly-competitive work environment, and they are not prone toward power plays, negativism, nor unrealistic demands on employees (principle of nonmaleficence).

"The avoidance of wrongdoing is, of course, the easiest of the moral imperatives. . . Beyond is the more important and difficult imperative of promoting the highest values of the institution, the self, and the society" (Enarson, 1984, p. 25). This is the principle of beneficence and it impels those in the generative level to promote individual skills in research and leadership, and to provide opportunities for growth and development. The climate will be one of openness, awareness, and willingness to share.

Justice, of course, encourages tolerance of new ideas and equality of treatment of subordinates and students. Performance evaluations, awards, and recognitions are fairly determined, and criticisms are impartial and unmalevolent. Finally, the generative level professional is honest, open, and respectful of confidential matters (principle of fidelity). Agreements and promises made to others are strictly adhered to and commitments are kept.

Comments made by Enarson (1984) on the college presidency and the ethical imperatives inherent to the position apply equally as well to the student affairs professional at the generative level of professionalism:

> In the eyes of many, [(s)he] is simply a manager with skills largely identical to those of corporate management: finance, personnel, communication, public relations, and the like. Nowhere do ethical concerns and capacities fit in the job description. It is a view that reduces a college or university to a mere public utility and reduces managers to technicians who manipulate money and people, law and politics. (p. 25)

Conclusion

Student affairs professionals are continually confronted with new tasks to perform and new goals to achieve. As a result, it is not surprising that ethical standards may frequently be overlooked in the process. Yet, "the force of ethical standards also compels the responsible student affairs professional to attend to ongoing growth and development" (Thomas, 1985, p. 39).

Remembering that the development of students is our primary responsibility, a working understanding of the role of ethics in our profession is paramount. Whether dealing directly with students or with our own professional development, the examination of our concern about and commitment to an ethical approach can make our jobs easier and less ambiguous. Not only will fewer conflicts develop with students and with other professional staff, but there will also develop a set of methods whereby decisions may be more consistently made.

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17

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Outcomes Assessment for Student Affairs

Until recently, the positive impact of college upon students has remained an almost unexamined premise of higher education—"a righteously great self-evident truth" (Ewell, 1983). However, as resources have tightened and demands for accountability have increased, college and university officials have grown more concerned about identifying and improving the impact of their programs upon students (Ewell, 1983). This interest in how well we do what we say we do has been spurred on by recent reports on higher education by prestigious study groups (Murrell & Arcady, 1987). The result has been an increasing interest in information on what is termed *student outcomes*. The purposes of this paper are to review the literature concerning outcomes assessment for student affairs, to offer advice from the literature to prepare for an evaluation of the educational effectiveness of the student affairs division, and to direct the practitioner to material which will be most useful in planning an assessment program.

Applications to Student Affairs

Astin (1985) questioned the traditional reputational and resources measures of educational excellence and suggested the outcomes view offers

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some possibility of improving the quality of institutions. In line with Astin's view, the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (1984) has developed new criteria and procedures for accreditation which are used in evaluating an institution to determine its educational effectiveness. The new criteria depart from the previous standards which held that effective education would occur if an institution had certain resources and used certain processes. The new criteria require evaluation of the results of education and use of the results in a continuous planning and evaluation process to improve institutional effectiveness. The Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS) Criteria 5.5, Student Development Services, requires that student development services and programs be regularly evaluated, and that the goals of the student services program be consistent with student needs and the purposes of the institution.

This increased interest in student outcomes assessment, coupled with a corresponding increase in governing agencies use of accreditation standards and professional licensure, has led to the development of standards (*program outcomes*) applicable to the area of student affairs. The Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (CAS) coordinated the efforts of individuals representing twenty national associations related to counseling, student development, and specific functional areas within the field of student services. These representatives developed two sets of standards, one of which is related directly to student services and student development programs.

The result of this effort is a document which sets forth "minimal essential elements expected of any institution and its student services and student development programs," and guidelines describing aspects of each program used to "explain, amplify, or interpret the meaning of standards through the use of examples and more detailed explanations" (CAS, 1986, p. 2). The CAS standards, therefore, are a blueprint for organizing, implementing, and evaluating programs and services which an institution has available for students. The guidelines stated in the document may not represent the ideal standards for every institution and are to be viewed as minimal standards useful as a starting point for evaluation and planning.

The framework presented in the standards can be employed by the practitioner for a variety of uses related to the more general areas of evaluation and planning. Some specific examples of these uses include: a basis for general and specific program assessment; an examination of student services and program areas for deficiencies; development of a rationale for resource allocation; or identification of areas for outcomes assessment. The CAS Standards can be viewed as a tool with many potential uses within the student affairs area, one of which is program outcomes assessment.

Student Outcomes and Program Outcomes

Ewell (1983) stated that student outcomes have long been investigated as part of the process of counseling and advising students to select programs most suited to their individual needs. Pace (1984) supported this view and stated that such assessments have been available since the 1930s. Therefore, assessing an individual's change or growth is not new. Program outcomes assessment is related to the more recent trend toward accountability.

A student outcome is "most often defined as any change or consequence occurring as a result of enrollment in a particular educational institution and involvement in its programs" (Ewell, 1983). Student affairs programs have historically operated from the premise that their purpose is to insure the maximum growth and development of students (Murrell & Arcady, 1987). Pace (1984) identified research and theory on student development conducted during the past 25 years which has enabled student affairs professionals to articulate more clearly not only the desired outcomes for students, but ways of assessing those outcomes. His review of the research led to the conclusion that there is no single best approach to determining how to measure student outcomes; the measures are influenced by the criteria used, by the way in which outcomes are defined, and by the items which will be accepted as evidence (Pace, 1984).

The consideration of *program outcomes* assessment leads to different terminology. Kuh (1979) cautioned that the terms used in program assessment—evaluation and accountability—need to be clearly defined. "Evaluation is considered to be a purposeful set of activities which has as its objective the rendering of judgments about the merit or worth of a student affairs program" (p. 14). He views the term accountability as being a part of the evaluation process, or a "set of procedures that collates information about accomplishments and costs to facilitate decision-making" (p. 14). The terms, evaluation and accountability, relate directly to program outcomes assessment in the literature.

Developing a Program of Outcomes Assessment

Since each institution must document, in both a programmatic and individual sense, the contributions which student services make toward student growth and development and toward the realization of university goals, there is no single correct prescription for assessment; each institution must tailor its own assessment program. Information is available to assist the practitioner to make informed decisions regarding criteria and instruments for out-

comes assessment and much of that information is summarized in this annotated bibliography. Among the most useful documents available are the Jossey-Bass new directions series on student services, institutional research, and higher education. Documents which cover instructional outcomes are not included in this review.

It is difficult to review current literature regarding the evaluation process without finding references to computer technology. "The use of computers as a tool in program evaluation is proving invaluable to institutions that want to develop more accountability and are interested in determining the impact of their student development efforts" (Pyle, 1984, p. 14). Because of this increased usage, this annotated bibliography includes some references to information about computer technology and student affairs applications.

While a single prescription for an assessment program is not appropriate for all institutions, it is possible to offer advice from the literature to a student affairs division preparing for the self-study. Attention to these items will help ensure a well-planned evaluation effort:

1. An evaluation program begins with the purpose statement. The student affairs purpose statement should be tied to the institutional mission or purpose statement (SACS, 1987, p. 7).

2. A series of goals for the student affairs division should be formulated and stated in terms specific enough to be evaluated. To avoid vague goals statements, use clear, concrete language containing action verbs and eliminate general adjectives and adverbs (SACS, 1987, p. 9).

3. The assessment of student affairs effectiveness involves a systematic, explicit, and documented comparison of student affairs performance to student affairs purpose. Expected results may be stated in qualitative and quantitative terms. While some student affairs "goals and educational results are not readily 'measureable', this limitation should not necessarily preclude the assessment of the extent to which most have been accomplished" (SACS, 1987, p. 4). The SACS criteria do *not* require the measurement of "everything that moves"; stress that quantitative measures are better than qualitative; nor state that all education quality is measurable (SACS, 1987, p. 2). Pace (1984) advised against the use of "broad, general criteria to evaluate limited and specific programs" and cautioned against defining "outcomes in such a limited and restrictive way that it becomes nearly impossible to find any" (p. 17).

4. Procedures and measures should be developed for evaluating the extent to which goals are being achieved. The evaluation can include quantitative data, qualitative data, standardized measures, locally developed measures, and satisfaction scales. Keep the evaluation system simple.

"Rather than the creation of an exhaustive compendium of outcomes, the objective should be the identification of that selected set of significant results which most adequately reflects the extent to which" the student affairs division "is achieving its stated purpose" (SACS, 1987, p. 16). Furthermore, various activities within the planning and evaluation system should be scheduled at periodic intervals; not all have to occur every year (SACS, 1987, p. 16).

5. Student affairs assessment must be integrated into the institution-wide, systematic, and regular effectiveness effort (SACS, 1987, p. 2).

6. Planning and evaluation are functions integral to the role of every administrator, but specific responsibility should be assigned for the coordination of evaluation activities in student affairs (SACS, 1987, p. 15).

7. Assessment for accreditation purposes cannot be accomplished in the year of the self-study. Planning for evaluation should begin now and evaluation should be conducted as soon as planning is completed. Adjustments to the process can be made as needed (SACS, 1987, p. 18). When it is time to conduct the self-study, the student affairs division should be able to show how assessment was used to improve effectiveness.

8. Remember the purpose of evaluation: to improve the educational and personal experience of students by showing that student affairs accomplishes goals it sets for itself and for students.

Summary

As student affairs practitioners enter this time of increasing accountability for both programs and the effect of programs on student development, planning for the measurement of outcomes becomes vitally important. The SACS accreditation criteria include many statements that say student development services **must**, not **should**, be able to show that they are doing what they say they are doing. This means student affairs divisions **must** now begin preparations to assess student and program outcomes in institutions.

Annotated Bibliography

American College Personnel Association. (1975, July). A student development model for student affairs in tomorrow's higher education. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 16*, 334-342.

The T.H.E. Project contains a statement on evaluating student development processes and outcomes. It calls for the "collection and interpretation

of information in two areas: individuals should be helped to monitor their progress toward achievement of personal goals; programs should be evaluated to determine the extent to which they optimize the opportunity for participants to achieve desired outcomes." It suggests suitable techniques for evaluation.

Banning, J.H. (1978). *Campus ecology: A perspective for student affairs.* Portland, Ore.: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

This monograph examines "campus ecology," the study of college students and their interactions with their campus environment. It does not speak to outcomes assessment as such, but contains a section of the assessment of campus environments outlining how to tailor your own instrument and describing other forms which are available (p. 55-71). An annotated bibliography on measuring college environments (p. 97-100) is a very helpful resource for environmental assessment techniques.

Council for the Advancement of Standards for Student Services/Development Programs (1986). *CAS standards and guidelines for student services/development programs.* Washington, D.C.: Author.

The CAS Standards and Guidelines are intended to serve as program development and evaluation systems and self-study and self-assessment tools. Their application for purposes of self-study can be instrumental in enhancing professional growth and development of student affairs and other student services personnel in their respective units; enhancing staff morale and productivity by analyzing organizational priorities, responsibilities, and goals; and, providing guidelines for program planning.

Cronbach, L.J. (1982). *Designing evaluations of educational and social programs.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cronbach offers specific guidelines on planning and conducting evaluations that will accurately reveal how well programs are accomplishing educational and social missions and serving clienteles. He outlines each step in designing the evaluation of a variety of programs and answers key questions about assessment procedures and evaluation design. Cronbach points out the advantages and disadvantages of the many evaluation techniques available, emphasizing gains and losses associated with adopting each of them.

Ewell, P.T. (1983). *Information on student outcomes: How to get it and how to use it. An NCHEMS executive overview.* Boulder, Colo.: National Center for Education Management Systems.

In this very useful document, Ewell discusses the use of student outcomes data in higher education. The topics include the development of an effective institutional student outcomes data base; types of student data typically kept in student master files and enrollment files; taxonomies of student outcomes; and, the features of six currently available student outcomes assessment instruments/services. The application of outcomes information to decision-making is also discussed, with attention to preparing accreditation self-studies, program review, institutional planning, budget review, and student recruitment and retention.

Ewell, P.T. (Ed.), (1985). *New directions for institutional research: Assessing educational outcomes, (No. 47).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This useful volume on student outcome studies gives an overview of the many facets of research on student outcomes, shows how outcomes research programs have been organized and implemented in various settings, and provides basic technical advice about the design of particular types of studies and the communication of results. The first chapter by Pace reviews milestones of student outcomes research and illustrates some of the basic assessment techniques and instruments that can be used to investigate the impact of college on students. Other chapters cover assessment in practice, the basic practical issues involved in using questionnaires and existing student records, major practical issues involved in surveying students, and techniques for communicating the results of outcomes studies to different decision-making constituencies inside and outside the institution. An appendix contains an annotated list of some of the most popular instruments for assessing the impact of college on students. Each instrument is briefly described and information is given on obtaining that instrument.

Hanson, G.R., (Ed.), (1978). *Evaluating program effectiveness: New directions for student services, No. 1.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This first new directions sourcebook for student services focuses entirely on evaluating program effectiveness. It covers elements of evaluation theory, identifies critical ideas and techniques that underpin good evaluation, and offers practical advice about conducting evaluations. A particularly useful section on outcome measures can be found on p. 46-54.

Hanson, G.R. (Ed.), (1982). *New directions for student services: Measuring student development, (No. 20).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This volume examines what is known about the measurement of student development. It covers reasons that student development is measured, aspects which should be measured, and reasons that make it so difficult to

measure the ways in which students change in college. A review of available assessment instruments is provided to aid in selecting the best possible instrument for a particular use. It contains a case study of the way that a student development program used assessment results for programming purposes.

Huebner, L.A. (Ed.), (1979). *Redesigning campus environments: New directions for student services (No. 8).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

This sourcebook focuses on the ecosystem perspective of evaluation, especially student-college interaction and its outcomes. It presents a cross section of ecosystem perspective projects and evaluates the state of the art in ecosystem applications. The volume is useful for outcomes assessment through its descriptions of standardized instruments.

Kerr, R.A. (1980). Evaluating the services. In U. Delworth, G.R. Hanson, & Associates, (Eds.) *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (pp. 421-438). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kerr explores the reasons why systematic evaluation is done, factors which influence evaluation, the components of systematic evaluation, and examples of systematic approaches both at the unit level within student services and at the campus-wide level. The suggestions are more related to accountability issues than outcomes assessment issues.

Lenning, O.T. (1980). Assessment and evaluation. In U. Delworth, G.R. Hanson, & Associates, (Eds.) *Student services: A handbook for the profession* (pp. 232-266). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lenning examines both assessment and evaluation competencies. He considers assessment as one component of evaluation; it precedes and leads to the judgments made in an evaluation but its roles and activities are not the same. To clarify the distinctions between assessment and evaluation skills, Lenning discusses general procedures for conducting student assessments and then presents special issues in doing various kind of assessments. He also describes the evaluative process in detail and presents several strategies for evaluating student services. He concludes by outlining specific skills that student services professionals need to conduct sound student assessment and program evaluation.

MacLean, L.S. (1986). Developing MIS in student affairs. *NASPA Journal, 23*(3), 2-7.

This article gives rationale, guidelines, and pitfalls for developing management information systems for student affairs divisions. Management

information systems contribute to decision making, resource allocation, and program evaluation, and, thus, have the potential, if used properly, to contribute to student development. The author points out that "all student development approaches are built on the assumption that measurable data will be collected, analyzed, and interpreted to aid students in their development. Additionally, without accurate and timely data, student development will be attributed to factors unrelated to an institution's academic and student development programs."

Mines, R.A. (1985). Measurement issues in evaluating student development programs. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 26,* 101-106.

This article introduces the practitioner to psychometric issues related to developmental assessment and makes recommendations for the assessment refinements needed in the field. It is a good but brief overview of instruments available to assess developmental stages and tasks. The author points out that "the assessment of development stages and tasks of young adults has not been sufficiently refined to allow student services practitioners easy use of the techniques for short-term program evaluation. This places the practitioner in an untenable position between the demands for accountability and the existence of few standardized means to achieve it."

Mines, R.A., Gressard, C.F., & Daniels, H. (1982). Evaluation in the student services: A metamodel. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 23,* 195-201.

The article reviews the student services evaluation literature and presents a metamodel for selecting evaluation models. The metamodel is based on the comparison of the common dimensions of all evaluation models. Practitioners can use this systematic evaluation process to select the most appropriate evaluation model for a specific evaluation problem. The model is aimed toward accountability and decision making as opposed to outcomes assessment.

Moos, R.H. (1979). *Evaluating educational environments.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Moos presents a conceptual model of person-environment interaction and describes the development of two of his scales for assessing the environmental variables contained in the model—the University Residence Environmental Scale and the Classroom Environmental Scale. Moos points out policy implications of his findings using the two scales, details practical uses of environmental evaluations in facilitating environmental change and understanding problem students in their social context, and examines the

major methodological and conceptual issues of evaluating educational environments.

Murrell, P.H., & Arcady, P. (1987). Mandate for excellence: Implications for student services. *NASPA Journal, 24*(3), 2-6.

The authors indicate the current crisis in education challenges and demands that student affairs personnel help develop a more coherent and holistic approach to higher education. One area the authors cite as demanding attention is outcomes assessment. Student personnel professionals must have a stake in defining program purpose if they are to occupy a central role in the life of the institution. They need to be sure that measures used to assess outcomes document the contributions student services make toward student growth and development. Student outcome measures should allow for diversity while demonstrating that the institution has been influential in the life of the student.

Pace, C.R. (1979). Measuring Outcomes of College. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Subtitled "Fifty Years of Findings and Recommendations for the Future," this book explores what is known about students' achievements during college, about achievements after college, and about institutions of higher education as organizations and environments. Pace draws from major surveys, with the intention also of giving some historical perspective to the results. The focus of the book is on the "primary evidence": students change during the college experience, and the status of college graduates is demonstrably different from that of nongraduates in many respects. Pace examines this body of information to describe central tendencies which are characteristic of higher education in general.

Pace, C.R. (1984). Historical perspectives on student outcomes: Assessment with implications for the future. *NASPA Journal, 22*(2), 10-18.

Pace argues that there are "lots of measures of student outcomes" in higher education. He summarizes the historical development of research which began in the 1930s to show that there is a large library of tests to measure student learning. He asks three questions to interpret outcomes testing: first, "What criteria do we use?"; second, "How do we define outcomes?"; and third, "What do we accept as evidence?" His concluding section, advice to evaluators, contains valuable caveats. This article must be read before planning an assessment program.

Preston, F.R., & Schetlin, E.M. (1985). Identifying student affairs educational activities: A model that works. *NASPA Journal, 23*(2), 25-30.

This article describes a simple methodology which allows campuses of various sizes to measure and communicate student affairs contributions to the educational milieu. The focus of the information is educational/instructional and informational activities. There is no attempt to assess outcomes of these activities. The importance of staff development activities and contributions to the academic community are also discussed.

Scott, R.A., (Ed.), (1984). *New directions for institutional research: Determining the effectiveness of campus services. (No. 41).* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The purpose of this sourcebook is to offer approaches to assessing the performance of campus services. The editor's notes, the chapter on enhancing campus quality through self-study, and the chapter on assessing the quality of student services offer practical suggestions and theoretical frameworks for outcomes assessment in student affairs.

Simpson, W.A. (1985). Easing the pain of program review: Departments take the initiative. *Educational Record,* 66(2), 40-42.

The author strongly encourages individual departments to undertake the process of on-going program review on two levels: first, at the university-level involving the use of selected individuals from the faculty, administration, and outside evaluators to serve in a short-term capacity for an identifiable purpose; and, second, a group of people from within the department who are charged with the review. This article references the review process within the academic community, yet is in many ways applicable to student affairs.

Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. (1984). *Criteria for accreditation.* Atlanta, GA: Author.

The criteria state "institutions have an obligation to all constituents to evaluate effectiveness and to use the results in a broad-based, continuous planning and evalution process." No specific format for the planning and evaluation process is prescribed, but the elements of an effective process are described (p. 9). The criteria require student development services and programs to be regularly evaluated (p. 24).

Southern Association of Colleges and Schools. (1987). *Resource manual on institutional effectiveness.* Atlanta, GA: Author.

The major purpose of the manual is to provide institutional leaders with a greater understanding of the concept of assessment as it relates to the requirements of Section III, Institutional Effectiveness, in the *Criteria for Accreditation* of the Commission on Colleges. The manual examines the philosophy and rationale for assessment, suggests an approach to planning and evaluation, offers a discussion of managing the evaluation process, contains an appendix of examples of applications of the planning and evaluation process, and concludes with a selected bibliography.

Whyte, C.B. (1987). Coordination of computer use in student affairs offices: A national update. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 28*(1), 84-86.

This article reports the findings of a national survey of 750 universities and colleges regarding specific computer uses. The results point toward the need for identifying system analysts who have training in the area of student development. Released time for current staff was also recommended. The author points out computerization efforts in students services have not progressed in a logical, well planned path and much of what is happening is piecemeal with no real "master plan." The whole area of computerization requires attention if the profession is to truly undertake on-going outcomes assessment.

Wiggins, J.D. (1985). Six steps toward counseling center program accountability. *NASSP Bulletin,* 69(485), 28-31.

There are a number of articles available regarding evaluation or outcomes assessment for individual student affairs departments. This particular article addresses six steps or "accountability stages" for the field of counseling. The administrator's role is outlined for each step. The author states that this model can be modified or expanded to apply to other divisional units as well.

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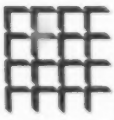

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